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ART. I. *Life of Geoffrey Chaucer*, the early English Poet: including Memoirs of his near Friend and Kinsman, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster: with Sketches of the Manners, Opinions, Arts, and Literature of England in the Fourteenth Century. By William Godwin. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 500 and 700. 3l. 3s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

THE practice of connecting the history of a particular period with a signal event, or an eminent character, is not novel, though it has recently grown more frequent, and has been exercised with a progressive disregard to the restrictions within which the earlier writers confined themselves. In the specimens of biography which the antients have transmitted to us, they rarely travel out of the sphere which their subject influenced; and the best models of later times have respected the same limits, as we perceive in the labours of Middleton, De Sade, L'Enfant, Jortin, Roscoe, and others. In this class, stands pre-eminent the History of the Council of Constance, by the worthy colleague of the incomparable Beausobre; two rare individuals, for the acquisition of whom the Prussian capital was indebted to the misguided dotage of Louis XIV. The transition from the subject of L'Enfant to the general history of Europe was not only natural but unavoidable. The biography of Cicero forms the annals of the Roman state during his life; that of Erasmus embraces the literature of his period; and if Mr. Roscoe has indulged more in miscellaneous matter than his predecessors, he may plead that Lorenzo was the head of a flourishing commonwealth, the hereditary patron of arts and letters, with whose memory is associated every thing that is splendid and attractive.

Connected with these views, the plan of the present work invites criticism as much as its execution. If the author, when he digested it, may be supposed to have borne in mind the ingenious Essay on the Life and Writings of Homer, it would seem that, in filling up his outline, he had reference to the un-

dertaking of De Sade. The precedent, however, is not in point for him; since the hero of that writer was much connected with the public affairs of his time, and lived in intimacy with all who were elevated and illustrious, with the sovereigns of the earth, the heads of the church, and the champions of letters. He was known in courts, and usually resident in one which far excelled all others in polish and refinement; he rendered services to literature on a very extensive scale; the effusions of his muse are classical at this day, and familiarly known to the well-educated in every civilized country; and his biographer scarcely introduces a scene in which Petrarch is not the principal, or at least a conspicuous, actor. The subject of Mr. Godwin's pen, though highly meritorious and venerable, fills, in the estimation of mankind, nothing like the space which the lover of Laura occupies; and we may say that, by the side of the Italian, our worthy English bard, as a subject of history, is but a dwarf. It appears to us, then, that Mr. G. has chosen a figure too diminutive to animate the extensive canvas on which he has laboured, and to give interest to the groupe which he offers to view. When the victories of Edward III., the exploits of the Black Prince, the valorous feats of Du Guesclin, of the loyal Captal de Bûche, and of the brave Chandos; the revolutions of Castille, the masterly policy of Charles V., the electrifying discoveries of Wickliffe, and the extraordinary discussions of the later parliaments of this famed reign; are suspended to the slender and dubious notices which have reached us respecting a deserving poet, the scene militates against all our notions of sound judgment, and all our ideas of fitness. It is not sufficient to say, that the connection of the history of an age with that of a favourite character animates the researches of the writer, and stimulates the attention of the reader: for, though unquestionably a great advantage, this object must not be purchased at the expence of all regard to propriety. If the physiognomies and the costume of the members of a British Parliament are to be exhibited to posterity, does the artist select a Cowper or a Hatsell, (estimable as those individuals are,) to be the principal figures in his piece; or does he assign the foreground to a Lansdowne or a Grenville, to a Pitt, a Fox, or a Windham? Were this the fit place, it might be easily shewn that rules of order and arrangement are not less essential in literary than in other undertakings: but Mr. Godwin either rejects or disregards this principle; and very coolly, as if wholly unconscious of the singularity of the exhibition, he presents us with an edifice, between the immense bulk and the slight basis of which there is no proportion, and scarcely any correspondence. To the work

work considered as a life of Chaucer, limits much more narrow ought to have been prescribed; and regarded as an account of the state of letters during the period, it is not sufficiently ample. Had Mr. Godwin taken for the text of his volumes, a History of Literature from the accession of the Plantagenets to the epoch of the Lancastrian Usurpation, he might have produced a narrative worthy of his talents and his industry, and which would have escaped the enormous perishable mass which the infinite scribbling of our days is accumulating.

Let us now, however, examine the materials themselves, and see whether there be circumstances which call on us to qualify and moderate our censure. It is too much the character of these times to strip letters, arts, and science, of every liberal attribute, and to reduce all undertakings to the advancement of trading adventures. This is "the age of calculators;" a provident spirit prevails; governed by the imperious calls of interest, we concern ourselves little about the future; and the elevated view, the lofty aim, the sublime plan, give way to the numerous and urgent demands of the hour. That Mr. Godwin has not been inattentive to these demands will be very apparent, even to those who in the most cursory manner examine the fabric before us. They will discover, if we mistake not, in its structure a sort of management and contrivance, and a spirit of accommodation, which, as displayed by him, we own rather surprized us. The respectable editor of the Canterbury Tales had meditated a work on the same subject with that now before us: but it was not congenial with his nature to spin out a detail from idle rumours and fanciful conjectures; he therefore relinquished the undertaking, and assigned the absence of all materials as the reason for his determination. This was an authority which Mr. Godwin was well aware pressed hard on him. What then is his conduct, on the occasion, towards that very learned person; who united to eminence in this and in other walks of literature, all that can render a character respectable; and who, as having restored the text and elucidated the meaning of the principal composition of Chaucer, was intitled to the particular acknowlegements of every admirer of the antient bard? The memory of our poet is surely far more indebted to an individual who conferred on him this service, and who has made his forgotten pages not only intelligible but inviting to modern readers, than to the fanciful writer who dresses him out in the gaudy tatters of fiction. Yet in the early parts of this performance, the name of the indefatigable and judicious critic is introduced only in order to be ridiculed and censured; and the tardy justice which is rendered to him as the history proceeds rather aggravates than palliates the injury. What a low opi-

nion must this author have entertained of his readers, if he deemed them capable of being thus deceived? If we are not in this instance to impute management to him, it is sufficiently obvious what was his aim.

Having disposed of Mr. Tyrwhitt, the biographer sits down to delineate the earthly pilgrimage of the patriarch of English poetry; whose adventures are as imaginary as those of Telemachus, and hardly less amusing. If the work did not affect to be a history, we should have scarcely a complaint to prefer against it. Schools of a superior kind, universities, inns of court, tribunals of justice, the pomp of military expeditions, and splendid embassies, rapidly pass before our eyes, and each presenting Chaucer in interesting attitudes to our view. The lustre of high connections, and the imposing distinctions of nobility, commodiously lend themselves to exalt the hero of this narrative. He is a favourite at court, and he is at the king's elbow in war; while the monarch, and the princes of his blood, seek relaxation from the cares of government, by listening to the sallies of wit and the strokes of humour which enliven the circle where Chaucer is seen. To him is given the glory of rescuing our vernacular tongue from oblivion; for when nearly expiring, he infuses fresh life into it, lays it under numberless obligations, and invests it with immortality. If, however, we quit the amusing narrator, in order to examine the biographer's vouchers, we cannot help being of opinion that exaggeration was never carried to a greater length; and that such liberties have not been taken with the muse of history, not only since the days of Geoffrey Chaucer himself, but since those of his old namesake of Monmouth.

When the author has silenced opponents, and dressed his hero in every native, adventitious, and acquired excellence which imagination can embody, let us observe how he conducts himself towards his readers. No unwelcome truths are here obtruded on them, no favourite notions are impeached, nor did any writer ever more studiously humour the bias of the times, or seem more complaisant to prevailing prejudices. Intellect is no longer almighty, nor is man to be solely put in motion by moral considerations; the paramount rule of the passions is admitted, and Reason is allowed a very limited agency: no longer the despot which she was once described to be, but made to hold very loosely the reins of authority, and to be contented with very qualified homage. We look in vain through these pages for the philosopher who penned a late moral and political code; and had we not been apprized of the author, we should have pronounced him to have been a disciple of the sage of Beaconsfield, an adept in his mystical politics, and not only

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an admirer but an imitator of his inflated style and his unsubstantial generalities. In all this, if there be no sacrifice of principle,—and we do not insinuate that there is,—there is surely no want of management. It may be that Mr. Godwin is able to reconcile the principles laid down in these volumes, with those which he has promulgated in his other works. We do not deny the consistency between them, but we are contented to state that we possess not powers equal to the discernment of it. This matter, however, is of small importance; it is only against the unbounded and unprecedented licence of conjecture in which he has indulged, that we loudly protest; and on which, if we did not pass the most unequivocal censures, we should feel that we were neglecting a very sacred duty. If we overlook the main design of the publication, and confine ourselves to the matters which the author considers as incidental and collateral to his subject, but which are offered to us with no sparing hand, they will appear, in the greater number of instances, to deserve high commendation. Could we excuse the fantastic arrangement of the board, the whimsical assemblages which it exhibits, and remain on our guard against the unsalutary mixture which it presents, we should find dishes in abundance which might gratify the appetite, and make us forget the odd appearance and the essential faults of the repast.

The progress of our report now calls us to the more particular notice of various passages.

Ever solicitous to enhance the merits of his hero, the author risks the assertion which concludes the subsequent paragraph; an assertion to which facts may be opposed, and which is contradicted by the preamble to the statute abolishing the use of the French language in our law courts:

'There was an incidental disadvantage in this island, which powerfully operated to check the growth of English literature. This was the state of our language. When William the Norman ascended the throne, he brought over with him great multitudes of his native nobility, and it was the policy of his reign, and the reigns of his immediate successors, firmly and unrelentingly to depress the former inhabitants of the island. William possessed great and important districts in France, and under Henry II. these acquired a vast additional extent. A great portion of the nobility under these princes were natives of France, and most of those who were not strictly so, possessed estates in that country. Living in intercourse with each other and with their neighbours on the continent, and despising the rudeness and barbarity of the Saxon race, the vernacular language of our island sunk into neglect and contempt. Few of the nobles or of the dignified clergy were able to express themselves in it on the most ordinary subjects. Our laws, our pleadings, our parliamentary discussions, and our deeds of inheritance, were all French. The very boys at school were confined to translate the phraseology of the

Latin classics into that language. The princes of the Norman line, who were encouragers of literature, had no conception of any literature which was not Latin or French. That language, which in its constituent members is the same which has since been immortalised in the writings of Shakespear, Bacon and Milton, was at this time threatened with total extinction.'

The following conjecture respecting the juvenile studies of Chaucer is interesting:

'Here doubtless Chaucer became acquainted with many of the Roman writers: of the Greek language it does not appear that he had any knowledge; the words of Homer, Pindar, Demosthenes and Thucydides, never sounded in his ears, or rolled from his tongue. He never drank from their pure and primeval wells of poetry; he held no intercourse with their manly sense, and their ardent passion for liberty. Among the Latins the nobler classics were almost uniformly deserted: the energy of Lucretius, the simplicity of Tibullus, the unaffected manner of Terence, and the poignant gaiety of Horace were forgotten; Virgil was comparatively neglected; the favourite Roman poets were Ovid, Lucan, Statius and Prudentius. In prose Cicero and Livy were rarely consulted; but the daily amusement of scholars was in the unnatural style of Seneca and Boethius, or the desultory collections of Macrobius and Valerius Maximus. To these they added the Latin compositions of authors who had preceded by a century or two the period in which they lived. The writers of Latin verse in the twelfth century have already been mentioned with commendation; the *Bellum Trojanum* and the Antiocheis of Joseph of Exeter, and the Phillipped of Guillaume le Breton, were particularly admired; and the Alexandreid of Gualtier de Chatillon was equalled with the most perfect productions of antiquity.'

Mr. Godwin thus describes the form and structure of the antient Romances:

'The nature and plan of the greater part of the romances of this period are sufficiently known, and indeed have been consecrated and preserved to all future ages in the beautiful fictions of Ariosto and Tasso. A lady shut up in durance and distress was commonly to be relieved by the prowess of some redoubted knight. Her champion had not only to encounter every natural and human opposer: his antagonists were giants of the most incredible size and strength, hippogryphs and dragons, animals whose breath was fire and whose scales were iron: he was beleaguered with every species of inchantment and magical delusion; rocks were to be scaled, walls to be penetrated, and lakes to be swum; and at the same time these rocks, walls and lakes, were the mere production of necromancy, brought forth on the pressure of the instant by the art of some mighty wizard. Adventures of this sort were interwoven with the miraculous feats of Christian warriors contending with their impious Saracen adversaries, who were also magicians. These were the tales with which the youthful fancy of Chaucer was fed; this was the visionary scenery by which his genius was awakened; these were the acts and personages on which his boyish thoughts were at liberty to ruminate for ever.'

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In some of the author's observations on the usages of the Romish church, the philosopher is lost in the sentimentalist, and we fancy that we are perusing Bossuet. When Mr. G. speaks of Henry VIII., he ceases coolly to appreciate events, in order to indulge in the lamentations of a connoisseur. We regret the ravages of the brutal Henry as much as Mr. Godwin: but, if the benefits which he secured to Britain were not to be obtained at an inferior price, we own that, were the transmutation possible, we should be Goths enough to refuse our consent to have the bargain rescinded. An unwary reader, perusing this part of the work, and not discerning the drift of the writer, might be led into errors which, we are sensible, these pages were not meant to countenance. Whoever would render himself acquainted with the genuine character of the Romish faith must not be contented with observing the pomp of its worship, and the splendor of its processions, in the capitals in which it is dominant; he must not take his account of it from its eloquent advocates; he must not judge of its effects by the manners of its higher clergy, or of the superior orders of its laymen:—but he must study the page of history; he must survey the desolate plains of Spain, the decayed fortunes of Portugal, the abject state of the human mind in Sicily and most of the Italian states; he must contrast the south with the north of Germany, Belgium with Holland, and heretofore Lucerne and Soleure with Zuric and Berne; he must compare the state of the human mind under the one profession and under the other; and he must oppose the divines of London, Geneva, and Gottingen, to the preaching friars of Madrid and Naples. When he has taken this course, he may securely listen to florid eulogiums on catholic rites, as well as to invectives against the indiscriminate zeal of reformers.—Yet it is but justice to Mr. Godwin to add that, in other parts of his history, he balances the account.

The author mistakes when he supposes that the sacred character of the antient British bard prevented his being engaged in the families of persons of rank, for the purpose of contributing to their amusement; since it is evident, from the best sources, that the favoured sons of song made a part of the establishments of all princes and great lords. In the household of the later chiefs of Wales, the office of the principal bard was a place of high dignity; and his rank and emoluments were fixed by the laws of Hoel Ddha.—It is, however, with great plausibility that Mr. G. supports his conjecture, that the antient English minstrels were accustomed to exhibit rude dramatic performances.

The biographer thus states his views of the clergy, in the time of which he treats:

'The clergy were at this time nearly all-powerful; and they cannot be accused of any heedlessness or indolence as to the embracing every means to perpetuate and enlarge their power. Considered as a body, they were no visionaries, no dealers in spiritualities and abstractions to the neglect of the practical character of the human species. They had much leisure through the means of their monastic institutions and their celibacy; and they reflected deeply, and in a spirit of cordial co-operation, upon the surest methods for swaying implicitly the minds of mankind. No expedients, of terror, of despotism, or austerity, were left untried by them. But these were not their only expedients. They could be fierce with the froward, and gentle with the submissive. They renderd themselves the confidents and the fathers of those who trusted them; and there was no fatherly office of encouragement, of soothing, of prudent counsel and seemingly disinterested sympathy, which they did not fully discharge.

'But there was one principle which above all others stamped the policy of the clergy in the middle ages. They considered man as the creature of his senses, and addressed themselves most elaborately to his eye and his ear. This principle, which must always be important to those who wish to domineer, was especially so when mankind was so little enlightened and *intellectualised*. The clergy therefore sought, as far as they could, to engross to themselves every thing which was magnificent and awful. They went further than this. They desired to be the sole source of amusement to the people. To this purpose were directed their shows, their processions, and their festivals. Above all, they were jealous of the minstrels; and, as appears from what has been already said, not unreasonably so, for in this career the minstrels were formidable rivals. It is impossible to look into any of the monkish writers about this period, without being struck with the excessive antipathy they express to this order of men.

'This then is the true explanation of the origin of the Miracle-plays, and the Mysteries. The clergy were not content with abusing the minstrels, treating them with the utmost contumely, and refusing them the sacred communion and Christian burial; they desired, in addition to this, to rival them in their own arts. They wished to take away from the laity the very inclination to listen to them; and for this purpose they could think of no better expedient than to copy their amusements. This is probably the true reason why church-music was so assiduously cultivated in the early ages; for the clergy had the scalds and the gleemen to contend with, before the appearance of the minstrels. No sooner then had the minstrels brought forward a new species of entertainment, the dramatic, than the clergy thought it high time that they too should have their plays.

'They were not deterred by the considerations which might influence the more demure and decorous churchmen of later ages. They understood the race of men they had to do with. They knew that they might exhibit Eve and the serpent, and God the Father, and the Holy

Holy Ghost, and Christ, and the devil, on a public stage, without in the least degree shocking the passive audiences of these pious ages. They knew that their creed was too deply fixed, and their spiritual pastors had too many avenues to their passions, to allow the mixture of laughter and ribaldry with all which was sacred and all which was mysterious, to be in the least degree dangerous to the stability of their faith. Sober thinking and extensive information must have taken their turn, before light laughter can produce any perceptible effect in overturning the most daring impositions.'

History does not fully substantiate this account; which ascribes more of comprehension to the minds, and more of malignity to the motives of men than experience warrants. The clergy were not the systematic wilful deceivers which they are here stated to have been: but they were, for the most part, enthusiasts, who regarded their cause as the cause of God; and they acted more from circumstances than from general views. It is fair also to recollect that a great proportion of this body has been distinguished, in every age, by an upright and conscientious discharge of the duties of the order; and that many of them have deserved well of mankind, as the determined and successful opponents of their ambitious and lordly brethren.'

In allusion to the rude pastimes of our worthy forefathers, Mr. G. very sensibly observes:

'The coarseness of manner, the broad humour, and the ribaldry, displayed on these occasions, are essential features of the character of our ancestors in these early ages. Historians, who from a misjudged delicacy of sentiment suppress them, by no means discharge the office which they have rashly and unadvisedly undertaken, and are in danger of painting all scenes with insipidity, and all ages alike. Critics, who do not bear these features in their memory, are by no means qualified to do justice to our ancient poets; and will often impute their flat or indecorous passages for a fault, where, if they saw the subject in its full extent, they would be impressed with admiration and awe of the men who, in the midst of so much rudeness and ill taste, preserved in so high a degree the purity of their thoughts. Chaucer, however superior he may be considered to the age in which he lived, had yet the frailties of a man, spent his days more or less in such scenes as have been described, and was acted upon, like other men, by what he heard and saw, by what inspired his contemporaries with approbation or with rapture.'

Reflecting on the amusements of this period, we cannot help feeling conscious of our own degeneracy. Is not the subject intitled to consideration in these days; and should we act unwisely, if we revived some of the manly exercises of our less polished, but more robust ancestors? We may have urgent need of the spirit and the qualities which distinguished the Britons in the reign of Edward.

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Equal discrimination and ability mark the author's statement of the effects of chivalry:

'Most of the diversions already spoken of tend more to familiarise, than to grace in our conceptions, the persons of our ancestors. The case is far different with the justs and the tournaments, which remain to be mentioned. These are intimately connected with those modes and prejudices of chivalry, to which modern Europe is indebted for the particulars by which she is most distinguished from the nations of the ancient world. The principles of honour and the laws of gallantry are the offspring of the darker ages and the feudal times; and the tournament was one of the most conspicuous of the modes by which these principles and laws were maintained. Whatever objections may be urged against the train of thinking in our ancestors on these points, and whatever solidity there may be in some of these objections, it cannot be denied that the theories of honour and gallantry were fraught with many advantages; and still less can it be denied that the actions and habits which flowed from them, are of the most poetical cast, and deeply interesting to the imagination. The education of a candidate for knighthood, the sentiments with which he was imbued, his lofty courage, his unstained truth, the loyalty and ingenuousness of his mind, the enthusiastic veneration he entertained for female beauty when united with female virtue, and the vocation he felt in himself to be ever ready in the service of the oppressed, combine to present to us one of the most pleasing and honourable forms of which the human mind is susceptible. Relatively to the present manners of Europe, and the progress which has since taken place in society, the profession of chivalry is an abuse; it is allied to ignorance, extravagance of sentiment, and a too prompt appeal to the sword: but what is now antiquated, or would now be censurable, has its appropriate place in the history of mankind, and was once commendable, beneficial and virtuous.'

As the sketch of Edw. III. given by Mr. Godwin differs, in some respects, from those which we have usually contemplated, we insert it here:

'Edward III. was perhaps no great politician; but he was a great lover of whatever was magnificent and impressive. His magnificence was not disorderly and absurd: it certainly had no absurdity of a nature which his subjects in general were qualified to detect. If he was not profound, he had at least an understanding sufficiently solid to command the respect of his contemporaries and neighbours. He was a prince of an ardent and enterprising temper, of a graceful and majestic deportment, and of a liberal and munificent mind. He was therefore exactly adapted to encounter the sort of fortune which we find he actually encountered; to be honoured and revered in what may be called his better days; but to be regarded with some degree of neglect, when the vigour of his frame, and the juvenility of his spirit had deserted him. He had sons like himself, generous as he was, courteous and gallant, turning their ambition in the same direction, and characterised by nearly the same defects as their father. The

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consequences of his military exploits were memorable enough to buoy up the greatness of his name; and the splendour of his court and the profusion of his festivals seemed to all men to be such as best accorded with the dignity of so mighty a conqueror.'

The philosophy of the succeeding passage, though it rather surprized us as coming from this author, is in our judgment not less sound than remote from vulgar conceptions, while it furnishes safe and useful hints for adoption:

'There are few truths more striking in the history of human affairs than that things which may be hurtful and injurious in one stage of society, had probably their period in a different stage when they were eminently advantageous and salutary. No speculation can do less credit to the discernment of its authors, than that which, examining institutions and practises in the abstract, decides indiscriminately that this is good and universally desirable, while that is fitted only to be the plague of mankind. Every thing has its place; and it would be difficult to find any cause influencing the mind of man in society, however now perhaps antiquated, insipid or poisonous, which was not at one period genial and nourishing, restraining the ferocious and savage passions, or forwarding and maturing the fairest offspring of intellect. Thus, perhaps, the secularised and degenerate religion established by Constantine and his sucessors contributed to bring on the darkness and ignorance of the middle ages: yet that very religion, acting upon the barbarous usurpers of the Roman empire, tended to keep alive some of the arts of a more culivated period, and to prevent the darkness from becoming universal and complete.

'What has been called the worship of images, or, more accurately speaking, the attempt to render more defined and habitual the intellectual conceptions of the multitude by the assistance of a gross and sensible representation, was the invention of the dark ages of the church. This was natural and just: without some contrivance to act powerfully upon the senses, there could not perhaps in such ages be any religion. This also tended, not merely to keep alive, but to raise into an object of general attention and request, the practice of some sort of sculpture and some sort of painting.'

Bishop Lowth, in his account of William of Wykeham, repeating the censures so often passed on the studies of the times, states it as a fortunate circumstance in the life of that prelate, that he did not remain long at Oxford, and thus escaped the injury which the studies then in vogue must have inflicted on his mind. Mr. Godwin strongly animadverts on this remark: but we find less fault with the substance than with the manner of his objection, which shews a total forgetfulness of that courtesy, of the want of which in others he sometimes loudly complains. Few men have lived, who presented more claims to be treated with respect than the amiable prelate in question; whether we consider the distinguished genius, the polished scholar, the tolerant divine, or the good man.—Among the

the reflections which Mr. Godwin makes on the occasion, the ensuing are not only eloquently expressed, but practically important:

'But, without doctor Lowth perceiving it, the vulgar sophism lurks in this passage, that an architect as Wykeham was should only study architecture, that a statesman as Wykeham was should only study politics, and that abstruse and severe scholarship withers the genius, curbs the fancy and renders a man unfit for elegant and original composition, or for a just and masterly conception of public affairs and the business of the world. This is a gross error. Man is a being of vast and various capacity, and is likely to fill the higher place in the scale of his species, in proportion as he has stored his mind with manifold knowledge. All sciences and studies reflect light upon each other. But, beside this, various knowledge enlarges and elevates the human capacity. Charles the Fifth said that, as many languages as a man could speak, so many times might he be affirmed to be a man. This remark might be more fitly applied to a liberal and enlarged education. A great magazine of knowledge inspires its possessor with a graceful confidence; he is conscious of his wealth, and disburses it freely; he wanders over the whole field of his subject or his business, and does not encounter a fence or an abattis at every turn. Mathematics may be a laborious study; the learned languages may be of tedious acquirement; etymology, or the knowledge of the affinities of speech, may be repulsive; logic may be super-subtle and disputatious; similar objections may be urged against natural history, civil history, law, commerce, anatomy, medicine, chemistry, and every branch of human knowledge: but the greater number of these a man has acquired, the more vigorous will he feel himself to be; and he who confines his attention to the immediate object of his pursuit, will be superficial and precarious even in that. Studies which shall, perhaps justly, be thought too nice in their research, or too remote from the affairs of life, yet refine the mind, *defecate* its grossnesses, and enable it to recognise and apply, so to express myself, the cleanness and *springiness* of its muscular powers.'

Mr. G. seems to be of opinion with a late French writer, that *l'homme instruit et appliqué peut se rendre en peu de tems propre à tout*. We are inclined to steer a middle course between the right reverend divine and the philosopher. We think with the former that, where the occupation is of an active nature, the quickness, versatility, decision, and firmness, which are alternately requisite in such a situation, are only to be attained by mixing early in the busy scenes of life; while in functions of a directorial nature, the propositions of our biographer will be found to be valid.

As might have been expected, Mr. Godwin appreciates with great justice the merits of the schoolmen. The improved logic introduced by Locke, Berkley, Collins, Hartley, Law, and Stuart, if it has induced us to abandon the systems of our antient

tient instructors, has taught us also to respect their subtilty, their acuteness, and their comprehension of mind. It is no longer allowed to every sciolist, to treat with flippancy the labours and pursuits of these early promoters of human improvement.

'The thirteenth century was the period in which that description of human geniuses, called the schoolmen, principally flourished. Whatever we may decide of their pursuits, many of which appear to be, and many of which really were, frivolous, no competent judge, after having looked carefully into what they did, will regard them as objects of contempt. They may be considered as the discoverers of the art of logic. The ancients possessed in an eminent degree the gift of genius; but they have little to boast on the score of arrangement, and discover little skill in the strictness of an accurate deduction. They rather arrive at truth by means of a felicity of impulse, than in consequence of having regularly gone through the process which leads to it. A strict logic may easily be prized at too high a rate. It is a machine too mighty to be directed by the strength of human intellect; and therefore the benefits to be derived from employing it are much slenderer than at first we might be led to imagine. The pure dialectician is soon bewildered in the labyrinth of his own terms; when he seems to be most accurate, he often becomes most absurd; strict deduction, even in mathematics, will sometimes lead to untenable conclusions. He who trusts much to sentiment, to impulse, to intuition, will often be freest from absurdities, and be conducted to the most useful and beautiful modes of viewing either nature or man. But, though logic is not to be used too indiscriminately, or trusted too implicitly, it is an instrument of high value, when confined within a proper sphere. It is a touchstone enabling us to reject with satisfaction many of the impositions which might otherwise be passed upon us; it is a branch of learning enabling us to arrange, in the clearest and most advantageous point of view, many of those truths which it may be necessary for us to communicate to another. While engaged in the strictness of logical deduction, we seem to be eminently exercising those powers by which we are distinguished from the rest of the animal kingdom; and man is but half himself, till he is able to employ with subtlety and acuteness this instrument for establishing truth and confounding error.'

The ingenious biographer has fallen into an error, when he says that at both our universities logic is most assiduously, and perhaps too emphatically and earnestly pursued; we can assure him that at one of them it is emphatically neglected; and that, generally speaking, if we can depend on our information, it is not too earnestly pursued at the other.

Of Chaucer's inducements to adopt the vernacular tongue as the vehicle of his ideas, Mr. Godwin thus writes:

'Chaucer saw immediately in which way the path of fame was most open to his access; that it was by the cultivation of his native tongue: and his seeing this at the early age of eighteen is no common proof

proof of the magnitude of his powers. It has been well observed that the English language rose with the rise of the commons; an event which first discovers itself in the reign of John, and which was ascertained and fixed under Edward I. Chaucer perhaps perceived, and was the first to perceive, that from this era the English tongue must necessarily advance in purity, in popularity and in dignity, and finally triumph over every competitor within the circuit of its native soil. The poet therefore in the realm of England who wrote for permanence, was bound by the most urgent motives to write in this language.

'Nor was the prosperous career our language was about to run, by any means the only, or the strongest, argument for recurring to the use of it. For the poet to attempt to express his thoughts in French, was for him voluntarily to subject himself to many of the disadvantages which attend the attempt to write poetry in a dead language. What is so written can scarcely be entirely worthy of the name of poetry. It can but weakly convey the facility of our thoughts, or the freshness of our impressions. Chaucer was a genuine Englishman, a native of our island, hitherto confined within our shores, and born in the class of our burgesses and merchants. French was to him probably like a foreign language: all his boyish feelings had been expressed in English: English words were mingled and associated with all the scenes he had beheld, and all the images he had conceived. For a man to communicate the thoughts he has formed in one language in the words of another, is a position not less unfortunate, than to be condemned to contemplate a beautiful woman, not by turning our eyes immediately upon her person, but by regarding her figure as shadowed in a mirror.

'To master any language is a task too great for the narrow space of human life. It is perfectly true, however paradoxical it may sound, that the man never yet existed who was completely possessed of the treasures of his native tongue. Many delicacies and shades of meaning, many happy combinations and arrangements of words, are familiar to one man, of which his neighbour is ignorant; while on the other hand his neighbour possesses stores of a similar sort, to which he is a stranger. Those also which have once been observed by any man, obviously divide themselves into two classes; one which he has always at hand, and may be conceived in a certain sense as making part of himself; and the other, phrases and expressions which he once knew and comprehended, but which now he rarely remembers or has totally forgotten. If then no man ever yet possessed the treasures of his native tongue, what presumption or fatuity ought it to be accounted, for him voluntarily to undergo the disadvantage of expressing himself in another? Add to which; even when we have mastered the supposed foreign language, we can still give in it no more than the copy of the words of our early years, words which relatively to us may almost be considered as the ideas themselves.'

The proposition stated in the first paragraph, though often advanced in this work, is founded on mere conjecture, and is even by implication negatived in the extract which we have made. It is by no means clear that Chaucer was such a master either

either of French or of Latin, as to be able to write in those languages. Besides, in the greater part of his writings, the choice was not left to him, as they consist of translations from these very languages; and it does not appear that the French, at this time, could boast of any considerable superiority over the English. The observations, nevertheless, which Mr. G. makes on the mastery of a writer's vernacular tongue, are not less just than important; they are comprized in the saying of Voltaire, "the best authors correct their works all their days."

We very much approve Mr. Godwin's critique on Dante; which attempts, not unsuccessfully, to exemplify the sublimity that it describes:

'Dante is one of those geniuses who in the whole series of human existence most baffle all calculation, and excite unbounded astonishment. Dark as was the age in which he studied and wrote, unfixed and fluctuating as were the then half-formed languages of modern nations, he trampled upon these disadvantages, and presents us with sallies of imagination and energies of composition, which no past age of literature has excelled, and no future can ever hope to excel. This is the distinguishing feature of the poet, by which he inexpressibly excels the mathematician, the natural philosopher, or the cultivator of science in all the diversity of its branches. Science has a gradual and progressive march; one discovery prepares the way for another; the human mind advances with sober and measured steps; and there is no period at which any great improvement has been gained, when different intellects, perhaps in different countries, had not that very improvement in prospect, and it seemed to be a contest of nice and delicate decision, to whom the improvement belonged, and who, among several persons who did make or would have made the discovery, is most clearly entitled to the praise of it. It is not so in poetry. There the master geniuses, a Homer, a Shakespear, and a Milton, seem to belong to no age, but to be the property of the world. They bear indeed some marks of the period in which, and the people among whom they lived, some tokens of human weakness and infirmity; but what is best in them resembles nothing in their contemporaries, was prepared by no progression, was copied by no future imitation, and stands off as wide from competition in all which came immediately after, as in all that had gone before it.

'Such a man was Dante. He is not infected, in his immortal part, with the weakness of his age. He does not march with the uncertain and half-determined step of William de Lorris. His satire is as biting, his sublime as wonderful, his tragic narratives as deep and distressing, as any which the age of Pericles or of Virgil could boast. His grand poem embraces the whole compass of human invention. He has thought proper to render it the receptacle of all his animosities and aversions. No author has exhibited craft and imposture and tyranny and hard-heartedness in bolder and more glowing colours than Dante. No poet has shewn himself a greater master of the terrible, of all which makes the flesh of man creep on his bones, and persuades us for

the moment to regard existence, and consciousness, and the condition of human beings, with loathing and abhorrence. Dante exhibits powers, of which we did not before know that the heart of man was susceptible, and which teach us to consider our nature as something greater and more astonishing than we had ever been accustomed to conceive it. Chaucer had the advantage of perusing the writings of Dante; and he read them with that familiarity and interest with which we are apt to be impressed in perusing the works of a great genius, who had just gone off the stage of life at the time we entered it. Dante died seven years before Chaucer was born.'

In his account of Petrarch, Mr. G. descends with his subject, but is equally correct.

We also find some judicious remarks on the comparison of antient and modern English poetry; and on the neglect of the study of old English writers, while so much time and application are given to the acquirement of the idioms of Italy and France. We trust that we are not inferior to Mr. G. in our relish of excellence, however rude and unadorned it may be: but why are we, on this account, to undervalue the finish which improved taste gives to the productions of more mature periods? If the writers of polished times are heroes of terrene origin, it must be confessed that they more frequently delight us, and that they are more our companions than the demigods.—We fully agree with the author respecting the high value which ought to be set on the study of our early literature; we even go beyond him here, since we are of opinion that our literati would do well to master the Saxon, the parent stock whence our language sprang, and that they would find their advantage if they were to extend their application to other Teutonic dialects. Having laid the usual classical foundation, this is the course to render complete the English scholar.

Mr. Godwin enters into an elaborate criticism on the merits and defects of the Troilus and Cressida, and then remarks:

'But, when all these deductions have been made from the claims of the Troilus and Creseide upon our approbation, it will still remain a work interspersed with many beautiful passages, passages of exquisite tenderness, of great delicacy, and of a nice and refined observation of the workings of human sensibility. Nothing can be more beautiful, genuine, and unspoiled by the corrupt suggestions of a selfish spirit, than the sentiments of Chaucer's lovers. While conversing with them we seem transported into ages of primeval innocence. Even Creseide is so good, so ingenuous and affectionate, that we feel ourselves as incapable as Troilus, of believing her [to be] false. Nor are the scenes of Chaucer's narrative, like the insipid tales of a pretended pastoral life, drawn with that vagueness of manner, and ignorance of the actual emotions of the heart, which, while we read them, we nauseate and

despise. On the contrary, his personages always feel, and we confess the truth of their feelings; what passes in their minds, or falls from their tongues, has the clear and decisive character which proclaims it human, together with the vividness, subtleness and delicacy, which few authors in the most enlightened ages have been equally fortunate in seizing. Pandarus himself comes elevated and refined from the pen of Chaucer: his occupation loses its grossness, in the disinterestedness of his motive, and the sincerity of his friendship. In a word, such is the Troilus and Creseide, that no competent judge can rise from its perusal, without a strong impression of the integrity and excellence of the author's disposition, and of the natural relish he entertained for whatever is honourable, beautiful and just.

'There is a great difference between the merits of any work of human genius considered abstractedly, taken as it belongs to the general stock of literary productions, and tried severely on its intrinsic and unchangeable pretensions, and the merits of the same work considered in the place which it occupies in the scale and series of literary history, and compared with the productions of its author's predecessors and contemporaries. In the former case the question we have to ask is, Is it good? In the latter we have to inquire, Was it good? To both these questions, when applied to Chaucer's poem of Troilus and Creseide, the fair answer will be an affirmative.

'But it is in the latter point of view that the work we are considering shows to infinitely the greatest advantage. The poem will appear to be little less than a miracle, when we combine our examination of it, with a recollection of the times and circumstances in which it was produced. When Chaucer wrote it, the English tongue had long remained in a languid and almost perishing state, overlaid and suffocated by the insolent disdain and remorseless tyranny of the Norman ravagers and dividers of our soil. Previously to the eleventh century it had no cultivation and refinement from the cowardly and superstitious Saxons, and during that century and the following one it appeared in danger of being absolutely extinguished. With Chaucer it seemed to spring like Minerva from the head of Jove at once accoutred and complete. Mandeville, Wicliffe and Gower, whom we may style the other three evangelists of our tongue, though all elder in birth than Chaucer, did not begin so early to work upon the ore of their native language. He suprised his countrymen with a poem, eminently idiomatic, clear and perspicuous in its style, as well as rich and harmonious in its versification. His Court of Love, an earlier production, is not less excellent in both these respects. But it was too slight and short to awaken general attention. The Troilus and Creseide was of a respectable magnitude, and forms an epoch in our literature.'

It will be seen that Mr. G. is not altogether the poet-critic whose kindred spirit, beating to the tone of his author, only applies to the subject the more correct taste and the more chastened judgment of an advanced period. His observations do not participate of the divine impetus: but they are studied and elaborate, the fruits of thought and research. If his reflections are

somewhat frigid, however, they display very considerable acuteness and judgment.

The considerations which Mr. Godwin represents as determining Chaucer to undertake the translation of the *Roman de la Rose*, we feel confident could never have entered the old poet's mind. With the exception of this conjectural part, the account of and the comment on it deserve high praise; and the reader of this poem will be rewarded by perusing the elucidations which he will find in these pages, since otherwise many parts of it will be unintelligible to him.

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

ART. II. *An Account of the Cape of Good Hope;* containing an historical View of its original Settlement by the Dutch, its Capture by the British in 1795, and the different Policy pursued there by the Dutch and British Governments. Also a Sketch of its Geography, Productions, the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, &c. &c. With a View of the Political and Commercial Advantages which might be derived from its Possession by Great Britain. By Captain Robert Percival, of his Majesty's Eighteenth or Royal Irish Regiment; and Author of an Account of the Island of Ceylon. 4to. pp. 350. 1l. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1804.

IT is not without some embarrassment that we sit down to announce the present publication. On a former occasion *, we awarded to its author that approbation which the world has sanctioned; and previously to the appearance of Captain Percival's account, Ceylon was little known to the present race of English readers, since Knox's narrative had become very scarce. In regard to the Cape of Good Hope, however, we were less in want of printed information. Among others, the works of Sparrman and Le Vaillant had obtained sufficient popularity; and our country-man, Mr. Barrow, has recently surpassed both these writers in accuracy and authenticity. Of each of his volumes, we have treated at some length †; and, as Captain Percival, without any specific acknowlegements, has thought it proper to tread very closely in his footsteps, we feel ourselves compelled to restrict our notices to such parts of the volume before us, as may involve the least of repetition, and yet convey some notion of the contents and merits of the whole. For this reason, we shall only slightly hint at chapters I. XI. XII. XIII. and XIV.; not because they are the least interesting, but because we have already given the substance of them in the articles

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* See Rev. Vol. xlii. N. S. p. 113. 243.

† See Rev. Vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 337. and Vol. xlv. p. 1.

above

above mentioned. To these last we refer for a general view of the history and geography of the Cape, of the country situated to the east of Cape Town, of the modes of living, character, and occupations of the Dutch farmers and planters, of the different classes of inhabitants at Cape Town, &c. &c.

With respect to injudicious arrangement, and errors of composition, 'it would be necessary,' says Captain Percival, 'to offer many apologies, were I not convinced that a candid public will readily find an excuse for such imperfections in the works of an author who is obliged, even while he holds the pen, to attend to his military duties at this momentous crisis. The extreme liberality with which the most eminent critics of our own country, as well as those on the Continent, treated my first essay in composition, the Account of Ceylon, gives me room to hope that they will look with still more indulgence on a work, written under many disadvantages; not the offspring of an interval of peace, but undertaken and completed by one engaged in military duty, amidst the bustle of unprecedented preparations for war.'—In another part of his volume, the author pleads his professional avocations as an excuse for the want of more scientific language. Yet, with very little expence of time or trouble, he might have procured the precise appellations of several animal and vegetable productions which he describes very vaguely, or even distinguishes by Dutch names. Thus mention is made of the *Spring-bock*, *Stein-bock*, *Riet bock*, *Bonte-bock*, *Haart-beast*, &c. &c. when either the Linnéan or English names would have been far more desireable.

The following remark is in better unison with our own sentiments:

'The author in some measure holds it a duty incumbent on military men, to give to their country-men some account of those distant stations to which they are sent in the course of service; and he hopes his exertions, however feeble, may have some effect in stimulating similar efforts on the part of those officers who may find any leisure moments from their military avocations, to devote to pursuits of a similar nature. This practice has of late become very general among the officers of the French armies; and from the adoption of it among us, many national advantages must result, as both the government will become acquainted with the state of its distant possessions, and the officers of our armies will become better informed and better fitted to protect or improve the stations of which they may be intrusted with the command.'

We may add that military gentlemen would, by adopting this advice, pass their leisure hours more agreeably, and more profitably, than by giving way to loose or frivolous dissipation.

From his residence at the Cape in different seasons of the year, and from his opportunities of visiting the interior, Captain Percival has been enabled to bring together, though not in the most unexceptionable order, a very respectable mass of authentic materials, which he has distributed into sixteen chapters *. To most readers, however, the journal of military and naval movements will appear somewhat minute and tedious, especially since the result of our operations in that quarter of the world, and the subsequent cession of our easily acquired conquest, are so publicly known. The same observation applies to some of the military remarks which are interspersed in the volume.

Without deviating from the arrangement which the author has adopted, we proceed to note that the contents of the fourth chapter are extremely miscellaneous; including *Fish-hook Bay* and *Musenberg*, 'shrubs, plants, and herbs,' 'monkeys and baboons,' the surrender of the Cape to the English, and the mode of travelling in waggons practised in this part of Africa. This last article is worthy of citation:

'Strangers will find conveyances very dear and difficult to be procured. A saddle horse cannot be hired at less than from six to eight rix-dollars, a paper currency worth four Dutch schellings, or about three British; and the general hire of a waggon to a stranger, is from twenty to thirty rix-dollars; and even scarcely to be had at that price. A heavy surf which runs all along this shore proves very inconvenient to people travelling in waggons; as the heavy loose sand, which is but a little way removed from the surf, renders it difficult for the cattle to draw; the waggon must be kept close to the water's edge, where the sand being wetted by the surf, is more solid, and capable of sustaining the weight of the waggon. The surf often rises above the nave of the wheels, and sometimes, if not dexterously avoided, it will rush into the body of the waggon itself, seeming as if it would carry horses, passengers, and all into the sea: a circumstance which made a particular impression on my memory, as it had like to have happened in my own presence to the late General Doyle and the Rev. Mr. Rosenhagen, in August 1796.

'No object sooner attracts the eye of a stranger at the Cape than those waggons, the number of cattle yoked to them, the uncommon manner in which they are driven, and the astonishing dexterity of the waggoners. These waggons are made extremely large and strong; all great journies here are undertaken in them; and for size and accommodation they may be compared to travelling houses; while the very uneven and rugged roads require them to be of a peculiar construction, and of great solidity. The body of the waggon rests on an axle or pole, running lengthwise; below it is not unlike a coach, except that the body is seldom hung on springs. The waggons are made broad, to prevent overturning, for they are driven over rocks and declivities at full gallop, as it is a principle with the drivers never

* They are incorrectly numbered as seventeen.

to

to spare the poor cattle. The inside is tolerably roomy and spacious, with platforms and benches, which are employed for sitting on, for bedsteads, or for holding goods. At one end they are even furnished with a place for cooking. The sides are constructed with strong boards well put together, and secured by strong pieces of wood placed perpendicularly. The roof is formed of boards, or thick sail cloth, well tarred, to keep out rain. The Dutch farmers, who inhabit the interior, during their long journies to Cape Town, entirely live in those moving habitations; whilst at night, or when they stop to bait and refresh their cattle, their slaves find shelter under the waggon, and the cattle quietly graze hard by, in a spot that has been pitched upon for its herbage, this being the only method of procuring provender in that country. In general the horses and oxen are well made, strong, and very steady.

'The clumsy and unwieldy appearance of the vehicles; the great number of cattle yoked to them; the fury with which they are driven along, without any regard to obstacles, while the drivers, with their immense long whips, are constantly urging the speed of the cattle, and dexterously turning the waggons short at every corner, without the least hesitation or dread; present altogether a spectacle highly novel and interesting.

'From four to ten or twelve pair of horses or oxen are yoked to one waggon. The horses, though a small race, are in general spirited and hardy; they do a great deal of work on little food, and are capable of enduring great fatigue. A bunch or two of carrots is sometimes their only sustenance during a long journey. Their hoofs being much harder than those of the European horses, they are not in general shod; and when they are, it is only on the fore feet. The Cape horses are not swift travellers; they hardly ever exceed fourteen hands in height; and on account of the flies, which are exceedingly troublesome, their tails are seldom cut. The Dutch never paid any attention to improving the breed of horses; they scarcely ever thought of introducing those of another country to cross the breed, and improve the blood. The oxen are strong, large, and boney; though rather of an awkward shape, being lank and long-legged. In general they are yoked both by the horns and the neck; and assist the draught with their heads as well as their breast and shoulders.

'In front of the body of the waggon there is a bar or piece of wood for a seat, like that placed before our hackney coaches: on this two of their slaves sit, and from this station guide a long team of horses or oxen. One of the slaves holds the reins, and guides the cattle, whilst the other sits beside him with a long whip that trails on the ground till he has occasion to use it on the cattle, which he does with both his hands. The handle of this prodigious whip is of bamboe, from twelve to fifteen feet long, and is fixed to a thick leather thong of buffalo hide, rudely platted, and of an equal length with the handle, with a lash nearly three feet long attached to the extremity. The drivers are so very expert in the use of this immense whip, which to an European appears so unwieldy, that they can touch a team of ten or twelve pair of cattle in any part they have a mind, even with the certainty of hitting a fly off any of the animals. Indeed none of our English

charioteers can at all be compared to them in such feats of dexterity. When they come to a deep place of the road, or steep and difficult ascent, they keep cutting and slashing amongst the cattle to make them all pull together, and exert their strength equally. By this means the animals will draw the waggon over the most difficult places, even rocks and precipices, whilst the fellow who holds the reins, equally dexterous on his part, will guide them over in complete safety.

'The means employed to render the cattle thus manageable are, however, revolting to humanity. It excites not only compassion but horror to see many of those unfortunate beasts cut and mangled, as they are, in various parts of the body; for a Dutch boor, or farmer, if he find his cattle lazy, or stopping from fatigue, or where they meet with obstacles which their strength cannot easily surmount, will not hesitate to draw out his great knife and score their flesh, or even cut slices off without mercy. These wretched animals seem indeed to know their cruel master's intentions; for their fear and agitation become excessive when they observe him taking out this instrument, and rubbing it to the waggon, as if making it ready for the purpose of tormenting them.

'The slaves who act as their drivers are generally termed *baastards*, being a mixture of Hottentot and Caffree or Negro; or produced from their own connection with a female slave; the latter deriving in general a stouter make and fairer complection from their parents. This race intermarry among themselves, and from being bred up in their master's family from their infancy, are handy, docile, and extremely useful; speaking the Dutch language as well as their own.

'When these drivers appear pushing through the streets of Cape Town, at full gallop, and turning from one street to another, without pulling in, even where the corners are extremely narrow, which is generally the case, a stranger stops short with a mingled sensation of wonder and anxiety, dreading every moment some fatal consequences; which, however, rarely ever happen. The drivers are early initiated in this art; for while as yet little boys, they begin by being employed to guide the foremost pair, when a long team is attached to a waggon, in passing through a narrow road. In many places about the Cape, these roads are merely rocky defiles between the hills, or narrow paths between ridges of sand. On coming to the entrance of those narrow places, they give notice of their approach by cracking their whips, which they do with such a loud report as stuns the ears of a stranger. This is the signal to warn any other waggon which may be coming from the opposite quarter, not to enter the narrow path till the other has cleared it; for if they were to meet there, it would be impossible for them to pass each other. This is a regulation to which they strictly adhere, and a very heavy penalty is attached to the breach of it, as the inconvenience arising thence would be extreme; one of the waggons would require to be completely unloaded, and the passage would thus perhaps be stopped up against all intercourse, probably for several hours.

'Every waggon is provided with strong chains, or drags, like those used by our mail coaches to prevent their being overturned

in going down the precipices and steeps. Sometimes they are obliged to drag all the four wheels, and have for this purpose a machine which they call a lock-shoe, being a kind of sledge or trough shod with iron, into which the wheels are set. This prevents the waggon from running down the cattle, and certainly is very ingenious in the invention. The cattle are generally placed in the team so as to draw by the shoulders, a bow or yoke of wood being put on each, and fastened by pegs, through which holes, or notches are made to admit the harness. The yoke of the hind pair is fastened to the pole of the waggon, and those of the rest have a strap or chain, running along the yokes of each pair, and carried on to the head, where it is fastened to the horns. Their bellies and hinder parts are left at liberty, which gives them room to move about in the waggons, and appears to render the draught easier to them. The principal guidance of the waggon depends on the foremost pair, which are generally the best trained, otherwise they might trample down the little Hottentot boys, who usually run before, and guide them by a kind of bridle or cord passed through the nostrils. It sometimes happens that these little wretches are thrown down and trodden to death, before the cattle can be stopped. The attachment of the animals to their little leaders is very great, and sometimes you will see them look about for them and keep bellowing and uneasy till they come to their heads. The cattle are under great command, and will readily obey the slightest word from their drivers; on being called to by name individually, they will increase their efforts, and draw together, even without the employment of the whip.'

Captain P.'s statements relative to the Dutch boors and the Hottentots, though not original, will arrest the attention of the reader. In agreement with Mr. Barrow, the deliberate cruelty of the former is more than once duly stigmatized, while the character of the latter is raised to its proper level:

'The Dutch have ever held the Hottentots in the greatest contempt, and never thought them worth an attempt to introduce civilization among them. A very unjust opinion has ever been held out, that in understanding, and the powers of the mind, they scarcely deserve to be ranked with human creatures; and are but little above the level of the brute creation. Whenever I asked a Dutchman any question concerning them, he looked as if he thought the subject too contemptible to deserve an answer. When I first arrived at the Cape, and saw their miserable kraels, and the wretched inhabitants absolutely in that state of nature described by travellers, I own that my opinion of them was little different from that of the Dutch. But when a few years afterwards I saw the corps of Hottentots in our service, and conversed with the English officers who had an opportunity of knowing them, and the qualities they naturally possessed, as well as the state they were capable of being brought to, I had reason to conceive a more favourable opinion of the dispositions, as well as the talents of a Hottentot. This corps formed a regiment, upwards of seven hundred strong, many of them fine, active, and soldier-like fellows; they seemed well disciplined, and many exhibited a

pride in their gait, that would do credit to an European soldier. They seemed much attached to the English; and when sent at different periods into the interior, against the Caffrees, and Boschies, with other detachments, they proved equally faithful and obedient, and shewed a degree of courage and discipline, evidently the effect of the attention paid them by their British officers. Much praise is due to Major Fielder King of the 91st regiment, for the good discipline and management of that corps.

'Should ever the Cape fall permanently into the hands of Great Britain, those people under proper management, may speedily arrive at a great degree of civilization. Their industry may be excited, and be turned to produce the most important advantages to the colony. By instructing them in the arts of husbandry, by accustoming them to a mild and equitable treatment, by granting them those rights which ought to be common to the whole human race, although barbarously withheld from them by the Dutch; the Hottentots would speedily be allured from the remote parts and wilds of the interior of Africa, to colonize the country nearer the Cape. The progress of civilization would soon inspire those already in the colony with confidence in themselves, as a people who have a certain part to act in life, and recover them from that state of utter degradation to which they have been reduced; while the knowledge of the comforts of life, and the means by which they are to be procured, would stimulate them to exertions of which they are at present incapable. Let this mode of conduct be once adopted towards them, and its good effects will soon appear on the face of the country: advantages will speedily be obtained that perhaps have never hitherto even been thought of.'

Chapter the sixth commences with a description of the country about *Wineberg*, and enters minutely into that of Cape Town. Among other particulars, we remark with heart-felt exultation that the use of the torture was abolished by the English Governor, immediately on his taking possession of the Cape. 'Among the instruments of death employed by the Dutch, were found many disgraceful instruments of torture, all of which were destroyed by our people, as a reproach to human nature.'

The next prominent object in this relation is *Table Mountain*. Its ascent is not accomplished without difficulty and danger, on account of the steep and rugged paths, the chasms which occasionally present themselves, and the thick fleecy clouds which suddenly overtake the bewildered adventurer. The height of this striking elevation, from the level of the sea, is reckoned at 4000 feet, and the extent and grandeur of the prospect amply compensate the toils of attaining it. The view towards the sea is boundless, except where the horizon is skirted by the distant mountains of Hottentot Holland and Caffre-land; while the mountains, plains, and indented shores of the colony, are stretched in wide and diversified luxuriance beneath the eye of

the observer. Cape Town is reduced to the similitude of a little plain intersected by lines, and the shipping in the bay are diminished to the appearance of cock-boats. Some heaths and shrubs are found on the top of the mountain. Like the *Tiger-hill* and *Lion's-head*, which are separated from it only by great chasms, this mountain is composed of a greyish granite, tinctured with blue;

'Before you venture to explore the Table Hill, it is highly necessary, if you are not perfectly acquainted with the climate of the Cape yourself, to ask the opinion and advice of an experienced inhabitant of the town; for the mountain is often suddenly covered with thick clouds, which would prevent a traveller from finding his way back for two or three days. On this account it is necessary to wait till certain appearances of the weather indicate that no immediate danger from those clouds is to be expected. The inhabitants of the Cape, from long observation, are well acquainted with all the symptoms of the approaching weather. The appearance of two remarkable clouds over the summit of the mountain enables them, with a great degree of certainty, to prognosticate what weather will follow. From the quarter whence they proceed, their first formation, colour, and the manner in which they bend their course, a Dutchman will tell, with little danger of ever being deceived, what will be the consequence. He will be able to inform you of an approaching south-east wind, and whether it will be violent and lasting, or light and passing. Those fleecy clouds which envelope the mountain, and are generally the forerunner of a violent south-east wind, are really singular and curious in their appearances, as well as extraordinary in their effects, which depend very much upon their manner of formation. On the first appearance of those clouds they are small, of a dark bluish colour, and are seen coming over the summit of Table Hill from the south, and passing on towards the Tiger Hill in a slow progressive manner, gradually increasing into one vast cloud which covers the mountain; when a terrible south-east wind immediately ensues. Sometimes these clouds last for several days together; though it often happens that the violence of the south-east wind lasts a long time after they disappear. When this immense body of clouds is formed, it is seen descending and rolling furiously down the mountain towards the town, which a stranger would imagine it was about to enter; and the threatening appearance of these volumes might seem to portend some alarming consequences to the health of the inhabitants; but on being arrived better than half way down, this phenomenon vanishes; for it never comes within a certain distance of the foot of Table Hill. As those clouds are always the forerunners of an approaching south-east wind, it is a common observation with the Dutch to say, when they see their first formation, "that the Devil is going to dinner, and that he has laid the cloth on Table Mountain." They then shut up their windows and doors, and keep in their houses till the storm is over.'

Among

Among the natural productions which are somewhat loosely described in the eighth chapter, the warm baths in the country of Hottentot Holland professedly form a subject of particular observation. They were analyzed by the English medical gentlemen, under the government of Lord Macartney: but either the result must not have been very satisfactory, or Captain Percival, after having availed himself of 'their researches,' and of 'what he learned from respectable Dutch gentlemen,' has furnished us with a very lame account of these mineral waters. 'The taste of those waters,' says he, 'is strongly tinctured with a metallic flavour; *and are* supposed by some to have a mixture of sulphur, though many who have tried them will not allow them this ingredient. The water is rather disagreeable to the palate, and considerably acid; though when swallowed it does not create any great uneasiness to the stomach or bowels. One of the springs has an extremely nauseous smell, much resembling the Harrowgate waters; which corroborates the opinion of some English medical gentlemen that it contains sulphureous ingredients.' Thus, after much diligent inquiry, it is found that these waters *may* contain sulphur.

The descriptions of various species of quadrupeds, birds, and insects, which occupy the ninth chapter, are far from precise or interesting: but we except the circumstances which are related of the large black beetles;

'They are seen busily at work in collecting the dung of horses and oxen, forming it into round balls, and rolling it to their habitations. The ingenuity and industry with which they carry on this employment *is* very surprising. When one of them finds a ball too heavy to be rolled up an ascent, he calls for the assistance of another; and if their united efforts cannot drive this ball before them, they turn their backs and push with their hind parts till they overcome the difficulty. These balls are much larger than marbles, rounded and smoothed with great art and dexterity. There are few things I have taken more pleasure in observing than the laborious and persevering exertions of those ingenious insects.'

Chapter X. chiefly respects the management (we should rather say the mismanagement) of vine crops at the Cape. The inferiority of most of the Cape wines to those of Europe proceeds from no inherent defect in the grapes, but from the slovenly practices of keeping them too near the surface of the ground, mixing both leaves and foot-stalks in the wine-press to increase the quantity of juice, pulling the fruit in an unripe state, checking the fermentation, and employing sulphur and sugar of lead for the purpose of fining. These remarks, however, apply not to the celebrated Constantia wine, concerning

which

which our author has favoured us with some interesting information. The beautiful little village of Constantia and its vine plantations, with the Table Mountain, are considered as the principal objects of curiosity at the Cape:

'Round the vineyards, dwelling houses, and offices, are pleasant groves of the silver-tree, besides oak, elms, and other smaller plants, which completely shelter it in every direction, and hide it from the view till you wind round the hill, and come quite close to it. There are two distinct and separate plantations of vines here, each of a different colour and quality, though both are called Constantia wines. The first farm, called Great Constantia, produces the red wine of that name; and at Lesser Constantia, in its vicinity, the white is made. The farm, which alone produces this richly flavoured wine, belongs to a Dutchman, Mynheer Pluter, and has been long in his family.

'The grape from which this wine is extracted is a species of the Muscadel, extremely rich, sweet and luscious. Its qualities proceed in some measure from the situation and soil, which are particularly favourable; but the exquisite flavour is chiefly to be attributed to the great care taken in the rearing, dressing and encouragement of the vines, in preserving the grapes wholly clean from sand, and free from the ravages of the insects which usually attack them when full ripe. With the cleanliness, and healthy state of the grape when put into the press, another cause contributes much to the goodness of the wine, the not suffering the leaves, stalks, or unripe fruit to be mixed in the press, as is done by the other Dutch farmers. If the same attention was paid to the vines in other parts of the colony, and the same precautions used in compressing the fruit, Cape wine would no longer labour under its present disrepute. The grapes of Constantia are indeed larger, and have a richer and more fleshy pulp than those of any other farm, and consequently give more juice in proportion. There must however be many parts of the soil equally adapted to the rearing of grapes as this of Constantia, although from negligence overlooked; for those spots that require least trouble in the turning up or dressing, are universally preferred by the farmers here in laying out their plantations.

'The quantity of wine made on the farms of Constantia, on an average, is about seventy-five leagers a year, each leager containing upwards of one hundred and fifty gallons of our measure. It is a sweet, heavy, and luscious wine, not fit to be drunk in any quantity, but chiefly suited to a dessert, as a couple of glasses are quite as much as one would desire to drink at a time. It is even here excessively dear and difficult to be procured, and must be often bespoke a considerable time. The captains of vessels touching here, who have wished to procure a quantity of it, have been frequently obliged to contract for it a year or two before the wine was made.

'Under the Dutch government the farmer divided the produce into three parts; one-third he was obliged to furnish, at a certain price, to the Dutch East-India Company, who sent it to the government in Holland. Another proportion was furnished to certain of the inhabitants of Cape Town, chiefly the people in high office and power,

power, at the same rate; and the remaining quantity he was at liberty to dispose of at what price he could to the passengers, and captains of ships of all nations. The price to strangers varied according to circumstances; when there was any deficiency in the produce of his farm, the price was always raised in proportion. The Dutch inhabitants in Cape Town, at whose houses and tables the passengers are accommodated, rarely ever produce a drop of this wine, except upon very extraordinary occasions. The Dutch indeed are sufficiently careful never to open a bottle of this valuable liquor at their tables, unless they perceive it may serve their own purposes. A rich Englishman who has made his fortune in India, and from whom they expect a handsome present of tea, sugar candy, or muslin, is honoured now and then with a bottle of Constantia at the dessert; but a British officer who is not supposed to be flush of money or valuable articles, except where he is a favourite with the lady of the house, may go without it all the time he remains here.

'When a bottle of Constantia is to be bought at the Cape Town, which is but seldom the case, and even then it requires some management to procure it, it is never sold under a couple of dollars. But it generally happens that strangers, although they procure this prize, are still as far as ever from tasting real Constantia, as there is another kind of sweet, rich wine, which the Duch frequently pass off for it.

'One may fortunately, by dint of persuasion, get at the village of Constantia, from Mynheer Pluter, a small cask containing about twenty gallons for ten or twelve pounds sterling; a stranger can seldom procure a larger quantity at the same time; indeed he must always be particularly recommended to take any quantity he can obtain, and also to prevent having the other heavy, sweet wine imposed upon him for Constantia. Mr. Pluter has a great number of visitors to his farm, who are equally attracted by the beauty of the place, and the desire of seeing the vine plantations, with the manner of making the wine. He is in every respect a complete Dutchman. For though used to such a variety of the first company, and gentlemen of high civil, and military situations, who always pay liberally, and whom it is strongly his interest to encourage to his farm by civility, and a suavity of manners, he is generally morose, uncouth, and churlish in his manners; and it is rare to see him in a good humour, though he gains a great profit by entertaining his occasional guests with his nectar. Money is the idol of the Dutch; yet they receive it without thanking those who bring it, or encouraging them to come again by civility and attention; and when they have once received their extravagant demand, they laugh at the folly of our countrymen for their indifference in parting with that money which is their own idol.

'I was so unfortunate as not to find this gentleman in a good humour during the two or three visits I made to his farm, and could scarcely get a bottle of wine, or leave to look at his wine vaults and presses, not having brought any particular recommendation from his friends at the Cape, which from pride he regularly exacts. I relied however on what I knew of a Dutchman's partiality for English customers; but on my requesting leave to see the place, he himself came out and informed me the gentleman was not at home. The other

officers

officers who were along with me, however, and who understood his disposition better, and the requisite management, got some of the slaves for a present to get us wine, and shew us the plantations and manner of manufacturing the grapes into wine; nor did we take the smallest notice of the owner's surliness and boorish manners when we afterwards met him, but went on to satisfy our curiosity, and obtain the wine and information we wanted. If company arrives before he is dressed, and has got over his usual quantity of pipes of tobacco, he denies himself, and does not wish to admit them unless he is pretty sure of getting hard dollars; those perfectly acquainted with this, take care to let the slaves see the cash, on which he sends any quantity into an arbour in the garden, and when the bill is called, he charges two Spanish dollars a bottle, equal to 11*s.* 6*d.* British. Some allowance must certainly be made for Mynheer Pluter's moroseness, as it is impossible for him at all times to attend to the reception of his visitors; some of whom by their teizing and forward loquacity, might render themselves extremely troublesome and disagreeable to his grave and solemn habits. His slaves are exceedingly attentive and communicative, when allowed to wait on and conduct strangers, finding it highly to their advantage, as they always get something for themselves.

'Mr. Pluter's wine vaults are very extensive and neatly laid out, and every thing is in much better order than at any other wine farm I have seen. In the vaults and wine cellars of the merchants at Cape Town, the wine is kept in very large butts or vessels somewhat shaped like the hogshead, but the rotundity is vastly greater in proportion. Those vessels are made of mahogany, or a wood very much resembling it, very thick, highly polished, and kept clean as our dining tables; they are bound round with great brass hoops, and the edges are also secured by the same metal, so that no accident or time can damage them. Each of those butts or reservoirs, which they call leagers, though an inapplicable term, as a leager is a measure of one hundred and fifty gallons, will contain from six to seven hundred gallons. The bung-holes are covered with plates of brass hasped down and locked; the cocks are also strong and large, with locks and keys to them, so that the slaves are prevented from embezzling any of the wine, as they are never opened but in presence of one of the proprietors. Some of those leagers are elegantly carved and ornamented with various figures.

'The next wine in estimation to the Constantia is a kind of Muscadel, or as they call it here Cape Madeira. The colour of this wine is a deep violet, and the appearance thick and muddy. Cape Madeira is a heavy, sweetish wine, with a stronger body than the generality of what is made here; for the various kinds of white wines at the Cape are thin, light, and acid. A person may drink five or six bottles without being intoxicated; and it is this wine which is generally used at the tables of the colonists. Except the red Constantia, no wine made at the Cape is ever so high-coloured as port or claret.'

Though the sugar-cane grows spontaneously at the Cape, the Dutch have never attempted to manufacture either sugar or rum: yet both of these commodities might be produced in this

this part of Africa with greater facility than in the West Indies:

'Every European nation acknowledges the importance of the West-India islands, from the two great staple commodities of sugar and rum. How much blood has been shed between the different Powers in the conquest and attainment of them; while numberless lives have fallen victims to the unhealthy climate. Properties to an immense amount, consisting of large plantations of sugar canes, have often been destroyed in one night by furious hurricanes and tornadoes. Insects and vermin destroy another great proportion; while the heat is so intolerable that the planter cannot oversee his own works, much less assist, by any exertion of his own. Those disadvantages are however still borne up against from the value of the sugar and rum which they afford. The Cape of Good Hope labours under none of those disadvantageous circumstances. Though it is sometimes subject to violent winds, yet they never arise to that degree as the tornadoes in the West-Indies, nor are their consequences to be at all compared. The climate is mild, temperate, and healthy; the soil clean and not subject to those weeds and other obstructions usually found in tropical climates, which suddenly spring up and choak the tender plants. Insects and vermin do but little damage compared to what is experienced in other parts of the world which can afford the same produce. The planter here can stand the whole day exposed to the sun without any ill consequences, and can assist with his own bodily labour, if his circumstances require it, or inclination prompt him. When the sugar-cane grows so well spontaneously, it is surely capable of being brought to much more perfection by the care and culture of man.

'The Dutch, in exculpation of their own want of enterprise, allege that it would require more slaves than they can afford, or would risk introducing into the colony; and that those already in their possession are only sufficient for their household and domestic purposes. These reasonings with regard to foreign slaves may hold good; but there is a still greater benefit to be derived from entirely evading that objection, and employing the Hottentots and other natives of the interior. By this means the valuable articles in question might be raised, and at the same time the natives brought to a degree of civilization and to habits of industry, from which comfort to themselves and wealth to their employers would speedily arise. When I talked to the Dutch on this subject, they became silent and chagrined, and seemed to think those reasons unanswerable. At times when they entered into any conversation on the subject, they would speak of their government with the greatest detestation and contempt, for losing, by its narrow policy, many advantages which the colony possessed from nature.'

The two concluding chapters present us with a judicious view of the government, revenues, civil and military establishments, trade, and resources of the Cape, as well as of the advantages which would result to this country from retaining possession

possession of this important settlement, should the fate of war again submit it to our power. It requires no great sagacity to perceive that the settlers, and all classes of inhabitants, would be benefited by the change: yet the question will recur how far any nation, with the view of producing partial good, is justified in protracting the horrors of warfare, or suspending the blessings of peace; and a wise politician may still be allowed to inquire, whether Great Britain is destined to augment her prosperity by the extension of her foreign territory? As a source of national revenue, the Cape has been unproductive to the Dutch; and that, under the British government, it would amply repay the expences attending the public establishments, is a position more plausible than perfectly ascertained.

To those persons who intend to reside at the Cape, we would recommend particularly such passages in the present work as state the prices of provisions, and describe the modes of living which prevail among the different classes of inhabitants.

A map is wanting to complete the usefulness of this publication; and the composition is very open to improvement. **Muir-**

ART. III. *Letters from France, in* 1802. By Henry Redhead Yorke, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Symonds. 1804.

So often have we lately been taken to Paris, and conducted to the different objects of curiosity in the French capital and its environs, that we begin to grow tired of the journey; and we compare ourselves, when forced to a repetition of it, to horses in a mill who are constrained to go constantly round in the same track. The narratives of this circumscribed route must, in a great measure, be the same. The mind, the temper, the predilection, or the antipathy of different writers may place some objects in different lights, and throw different colouring over the picture: but the judicious reader will make due allowances for the various prejudices of the reporter, and appreciate his testimony accordingly. Authors do not sufficiently reflect on this circumstance. They forget that their books will not be perused with the passion and intemperance in which they may have written them; and that by attempting to prove too much they will prove nothing. Mr. Yorke has not only overlooked this maxim, so necessary to be kept in view by those who undertake to instruct, but has also disregarded a truth which in his situation he ought to have well remembered, that the opposite of wrong is not always right. We give him full credit for the sincerity of his political conversion; but we must distinguish,

tinguish, as divines have taught us, between the *virtue* and the *passion* of repentance; and we must be of opinion that these Letters from France, whether intended as a palinody or a philippic, are much over-done. Mr. Yorke has substituted coarse abuse of the French in the room of keen animadversion, and is often so very intemperate as completely to defeat his own purpose.

The true moralist and admirer of genuine freedom would certainly see much that would disgust him in Paris; and the Englishman, who loves his country, must necessarily reprobate the principles and conduct of the French Government: but there is a dignified mode of proceeding in this case, which, for the honour of the British character, we are very solicitous of preserving. We are sorry therefore that Mr. Yorke deemed it necessary to be so profuse of calumnious epithets, even in speaking of the enemies of his country. We allow him to denominate France 'monkey-land, which seems to be governed by the spirit of a merry devil,' and to style 'Liberty and Equality the funny divinities of that country,' for this is playful satire: but there seems to be little reason and little wit in his incessant abuse of the members of the National Institute, who are termed 'a groupe of rascals,' 'a gang of philosophical thieves,' 'a gang of the vilest ruffians in the world,' &c.* He may be justified in reprobating Paris as 'the most polluted den in the civilized world:' but some of her vices he has denounced in too audible a whisper for chaste Christian ears.

It is not requisite, after the various tours of this kind which we have recently noticed, to take the reader with Mr. Yorke to Calais, Amiens, Montreuil, Flixcourt, and Chantilly; nor to theatres, consular reviews, paintings, libraries, galleries, museums, &c. in making the round of Paris. His remarks on the mode of posting, as conducted in France, on the croud of beggars, on the badness of the roads, on their being free from highwaymen, on the extortion of some inn-keepers, &c. are not new. His opinion of the state of society, however, may deserve to be quoted:

'While I reside here, I shall give you a faithful account of the state of this capital, which has always taken the lead, and may indeed be considered as the manufactory whence all the horrors and changes of the Revolution have originated. France ought not to be judged by the manners and dissolute principles of the inhabitants of the me-

* The National Institute finds no quarter. In one place Mr. Y. says, 'The devils in hell are full as knowing as the members of the French Institute, and for aught I know have not done more mischief to mankind.' Vol. II. p. 60.

tropolis.

tropolis. In the provinces remote from the center of government, there are to be found as much character and simplicity as in the distant counties of the best regulated empires. The effects of the Revolution may, indeed, have contributed to operate *some* change in the former innocence of the peasantry, and to have corrupted, in some degree, the primitive integrity of their character. But where this has been the case, the cause may be easily traced to the polluted streams of Atheism, and to the artifices of demagogues. I apprehend that it may be affirmed, without fear of contradiction, that where the people are most ignorant, they are most simple in their manners, though I do not wish it to be understood, that they are most happy on this account. In the mountains of the Vosges, in La Vendée, and in the South-western parts of the Republic, I have been informed by very able, acute and impartial persons, who are fully competent to discriminate the characters of men, that the people, both of the towns and country, possess a very strong originality of character, founded on the best sentiments of generosity and virtue. But this is not to be said of the many other departments of the Republic, much less of the department of the Seine, where every principle of social order is inverted, and society itself is loathsome, abhorrent, corrupted, poisoned, and poisonous.'

The account of the Establishment at Chaillot, for the reception of aged persons of both sexes, has not, we believe, been described by other tourists; and as it is a plan not unworthy of adoption in this country, we shall in part transcribe the detail:

'I happened, lately, to fall into company with a *ci-devant* nobleman of the name of *Duchailla;* who during the times of terror, lost all his fortune, and was compelled to shelter himself at Berlin. I soon found that he possessed a sound and inquisitive mind, and was thoroughly conversant in every branch of domestic economy. In the course of our conversation, he inquired whether we had in Great Britain or Ireland, any institutions which offered a retreat for old age. I answered immediately, that they were numberless; and proceeded to enumerate many of our establishments (of which, perhaps, there are more in Britain than in all Europe collectively) for the support of the aged poor. This answer evidently did not satisfy him, and, therefore, he placed his question on a different footing. "Have you" said he, "*any institution, wholly independent of charitable purposes, in which male and female persons, after they have reached seventy years of age, or sooner if infirm, can,* BY RIGHT, *and without asking the favour of any individual, place themselves, in order to pass the remainder of their days in comfort and repose?*" As I could not recollect any establishment of the kind in England, he immediately said, "Come and dine at my house to-morrow, and I will show you one." On the next day, I waited upon him, and I shall now relate what I saw.

'The house of M. Duchailla is most beautifully situated at Chaillot, in the *Champs Elysées*, about two miles from Paris, commanding a most extensive view of the city, the Seine, and the *Champ de Mars*. In front, there is a very large and elegant parterre, terminating in an extensive kitchen garden; behind, there is another large house, for-

merly the monastery of St. Perine, which also belongs to this establishment; and a field, of about four acres, bordered by a well-cultivated garden.

'In this establishment, I found nearly one hundred aged persons, male and female, whose manners and appearance evidently bespoke that they had figured in the genteeler walks of life, and whose countenances indicated the most perfect happiness and contentment. "This," said he, "is the retreat I have established for old age."

'You must now follow me, step by step, with M. Duchailla, into the distribution of all the apartments, and the general arrangement of his domestic economy.

'The chambers occupied by the female part of the society, compose the right wing of the house. Each female has a bed-chamber to herself exclusively; and there is one sitting-room or parlour appropriated to two females. Their clothing, if required, is found them.

'The left wing of the house is occupied by the males, who are distributed in the same manner as the females, each person having a bed-room to himself and a common parlour being allotted to two persons, in which they receive the visits of their relatives, and friends, without the inconvenience of being obtruded upon by strangers. A husband and wife have a room also to themselves.

'Their diet corresponds in every respect with the neatness and simplicity of their apartments. At one o'clock, a plentiful dinner is served up in the hall for the whole society, and at seven they again assemble to supper. Besides a sufficient quantity of meat and vegetables, each person is allowed a pound and an half of bread, the men a bottle of wine, and the women half a bottle daily.

'In case of sickness, they are removed to a particular part of the house, which is used as an infirmary, where they are provided with every medical assistance, and experience every possible attention; and in case of their decease, they are decently interred in the neighbouring church, at the expence of the society; or elsewhere, at the expence of their friends.

'Their time is entirely at their own disposal. They may even employ themselves in any lucrative occupation, provided it does not interfere with the quiet and general rules of the house. I observed that several females were very profitably engaged in needle-work for their friends and families. What little pecuniary emoluments they may acquire by their industry, supply them with pocket-money. The men usually pass their time in reading, walking in the neighbouring fields, or, occasionally, working in the garden. In general, I observed, they were less active and industrious than the women, but much more devout.'—

'The difference between this institution and hospitals, consists in this, the subscriber has a *right* to the possession of this *property for life*, acquired by his own economy and labour, and for which he is indebted neither to the compassion, nor to the liberality of others.'—

'A subscription is the essential and indispensable condition of acquiring the right of admission, according to which, every subscriber must pay regularly and punctually, ten-pence per month, from ten till thirty years of age; one shilling and three-pence per month, from thirty

thirty to fifty; one shilling and eight-pence per month, from fifty to seventy years of age. These different payments will amount to 45*l.*, which must be completely paid before a person can acquire the right of admission. Hence, if any one more than ten years of age, should offer as a subscriber, he or she must deposit, at the time of subscription, and according to his or her age, the sum which would have been paid if the subscription had commenced at ten. In order to give encouragement to benevolence, all persons who may be disposed to subscribe, may transfer their right to as many persons as they have made subscriptions, on condition, that the person who shall be benefited by the transfer, shall be, as nearly as possible, of the same age as his benefactor, and that he shall not be admitted before he has reached seventy years of age, and paid the 45l. This transferred subscription is extinguished by the death of the substitute. The funds are placed on securities, and subjected to an administration, which is in every respect safe and undeniable.'

A sight of the Temple leads to a disclosure of information which, if it may be deemed accurate, proves that the Bastille and the sytem appertaining to that '*antient fortress*' are revived:

'All the surrounding buildings have been pulled down, and a large opening is formed, which absolutely secludes it from all immediate communication with the city, and gives it a much more formidable appearance than at the commencement of the republic. It is impossible to obtain admission into this state Bastille; for it is rigidly guarded both within and without the walls; and persons are frequently conveyed thither by a *lettre de cachet* from the Grand Inquisitor, Fouche, without any preliminary examination, and often without the knowledge of their friends. This is the real history of those sudden disappearances of a number of persons, which the French, and after them the English journalists, have ascribed to robbers and assassins. A trial is not *always* necessary in this land of liberty, to establish the innocence or guilt of *certain* individuals; hence, the *Cayenne Diligence* is always in readiness to take up such passengers as are not *required* to make any stay in the Temple, which is the *safest* place of baiting between the *bureau* of the Minister of Police and Rochefort. It is not until the wretched victims are on the eve of embarking on board the Salaminian vessel of state, that they are permitted to disclose their fate to their relatives, and to announce their destination to the delectable regions of the most luxurious climate of South America; and often this *indulgence* is denied to the hapless sufferers.'

The Central Museum, enriched by the plunder of the conquered countries, Mr. Y. tells us 'he never entered, or left without disgust,' and we applaud his honourable feeling: but, while he indignantly stigmatizes the conduct of the French in plundering Italy, he offers a kind of apology for the Romans who pursued a similar course. He observes of the antient Romans, that 'they contended against nations more valiant

than wealthy, and whose courage had not been subdued by corruption; they had fought for their safety, and *the honour of their name*, and they would never have conquered the people to whom they gave laws, if *their superior virtues had not rendered them worthy to command.*' Will the *honour* of a name, then, and the plea of superior virtue, which any powerful nation may assume, form a justification for wantonly invading neighbouring states, destroying their government, and robbing them of their valuable effects? The French may borrow this hint from Mr. Y., and proclaim themselves possessed of that superior virtue which renders them worthy to command all Europe.

In spite, however, of the author's disgust, and of his assertion that he received not a moment's gratification from all the Raphaels, Titians, and Corregios which he saw, he not only, in a subsequent page, speaks of the effect of the Gallery as enchanting and sublime, but surpasses the most enthusiastic dilettante in his admiration of the Laocoon. 'The Laocoon is here of itself worth the whole gallery of paintings, and which, if I were its proprietor, I would not exchange for any kingdom on the continent of Europe.'

We pass from the splendor of the Arts to a department which more decidedly marks the prosperity of a country,—we mean the Post-Office; and we shall take the liberty of transcribing Mr. Yorke's contrasted view of this establishment in London and Paris:

'If a person who had paid a visit to Lombard Street, and observed the multitude of persons employed in every department of our General Post office; the extraordinary bustle, united to the utmost precision visible there, should happen to alight on a sudden in the *Rue Coqueron*, without knowing in what part of the world he was, he would immediately conclude that the Post-office belonged to some small trading town, instead of the capital of the *greatest* nation upon the earth. But, should he contrast the revenue of the one with that of the other, (I can scarcely hold my pen with laughing,) he would be naturally led to believe that Great Britain must contain, at least, one hundred million of souls, and France about two or three millions. It does not require much skill in the science of Political Economy, in order to resolve the cause of this remarkable disparity.'—

'I have stood for hours in the court yard, in order to see the arrivals of their different couriers. Nothing can be more ridiculous than the contrast between them and our Mail Coaches. Huge, unwieldy machines, drawn by little cart horses, harnessed with ropes, moving at a slow pace, with the couriers announcing their arrival by tremendous cracks of their whips; compared with the dress and horns of our coachmen and guards, the elegant neatness and convenience of our Mail Coaches, the beauty of our horses, and the expedition with which they are received, dispatched, and pursue their different routes, almost *to a minute*; have induced me, with the most profound deference to the

Master

Master of the Earth, to entertain *not quite* so humble an opinion of the little *nation of shopkeepers*, as in servile submission to his sublime will, I ought to do.'

Towards the end of this work, the author enumerates the several Newspapers; annexing an account of the characters of those who write in them, as well as of the philosophical and literary periodical publications; and discussing the characters of Thomas Paine, Joel Barlow, Miss Helen Maria Williams, Madame Tallien, and Kosciusko. We do not approve of the illiberal satire with which he attacks our fair country-woman: but his *chef d'œuvre*, in the style of coarse painting, is his delineation of Bonaparte, who is introduced among the contributors to the Moniteur, as dealing in '*incomprehensible bombast and downright nonsense.*'—

'Napoleone Bonaparte, Saint, and Apostle of the Gauls, Sovereign of France, and Dictator of the Continent of Europe; originally a Lieutenant of Artillery, afterwards, one of the Spies of the Police of Paris; but having married the cast-off mistress of his patron, in consideration of her fortune, and of a promise of preferment in the army, he became a General; defeated armies always inferiour to his own in number; over ran Italy by the means of numberless successful frauds; became a hero; revolutionized it, and then became its legislator; committed a thousand military blunders, for which, as a general, he deserved to be shot; robbed and massacred its inhabitants, for which he deserved to be hanged; promised to revolutionize England in six months, wherein he lied; set off for Egypt at the head of 47,000 choice thieves like himself, to ransack it and butcher its inhabitants, for which he deserved to be bow-stringed; avowed his perjuries, for which he deserved to be put in the pillory; contrived to rid the Republic of a whole fleet of men of war, for which he deserved the guillotine; poisoned his own sick soldiers, for which he deserved to be put in a boiling cauldron, conformably to the old statute in such case made and provided; became a Mussulman, for which he deserved to be circumcised; murdered his defenceless prisoners, for which he deserved to be buried alive; ran away from his distressed army, for which he deserved to be put to the halberts; subverted the constitution he had sworn to observe, and made himself master of France, for which he deserved to be sent among wild beasts; cheated all his former associates, and lashes his people of slaves with a rod of scorpions, for which he deserves praise; made himself President of the Italian Republic, for which he deserved the gallies; disturbs the peace of Swisserland, for which he deserves to be drowned in the lake of Geneva; the eternal enemy of the British nation, for which he deserves their thanks; a Member of the National Institute, for which he deserves to be whipped at school; the implacable enemy of God and man, for which he deserves to go to——.'

In a speech at a village club, such an effusion might be well received: but it does not become a grave publication. Britons

do not wish to attack even their bitterest enemy with such impotent and silly weapons: for what can such Billingsgate oratory avail? If Mr. Yorke should present to the public a sequel of this tour, for which he in some measure prepares us, we advise him to be more temperate, and to write with more philosophic and gentlemanly decorum.

Mo.y.

ART. IV. *The Life of General de Zieten*, Colonel of the Royal Prussian Regiment of Hussar-Lifeguards, Knight of the Order of the Black Eagle, &c. By Madame de Blumenthal, First Lady of the Bed Chamber to Her Royal Highness the Dowager Princess Henry of Prussia. Translated from the German, by the Rev. B. Beresford, P.D. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

To those who are acquainted with the king of Prussia's wars, the name of Zieten is familiar; and they will not regret the more intimate knowlege of him with which they are furnished in these volumes by Madame de Blumenthal, to whom we are indebted for those pleasures which are ever felt in contemplating the labours of genius, when directed to a subject worthy of its exertions. The hero of this narrative was never surpassed in valour and enterprize; and in professional zeal and skill, his name stands connected with some of the most remarkable feats ever achieved by the united aid of courage, address, and good fortune. As this illustrious commander was moreover distinguished by the qualities of a great and noble soul, he forms a character eminently attractive, estimable, and dignified; such an one as occurs but rarely in the pages of history. The fair artist, who has undertaken the task of sketching his portrait, is not less faithful than able; and if the likeness be a favourable one, it is taken from the life.

Impressed deeply with her subject, Mad. de B. displays an uncommon degree of animation in her descriptions; and while perusing them, the sentiments of the hero seem to beat in our bosoms, his enterprising spirit pervades our frame, we bear him company in his daring exploits, we overcome difficulties, we brave dangers, we endure privations, we are cool and collected in emergencies the most critical, and, like him, we are alive only to honour, fame, and duty: we share the conscious merit which, on the return of peace, cheers his breast, we participate in the consideration and distinctions which await him, and we taste the enjoyments and felicities which solaced the long evening of his life.

If the decline of General de Zieten's day was resplendant, its morning had been not less clouded; and fortune subjected him to trials not less perilous and extraordinary than the deeds which

which immortalized him. All that the utmost baseness of human nature could devise was employed to try the strength of his mind, and to exercise his virtue; and though zealously devoted to his royal master, and rendering him the greatest services, he received in return most unkind and unjust treatment. Until the breaking out of the famed seven years' war, the great Frederic seems to have been jealous of him; and it has been observed that, in his posthumous account of that singular contest, he scarcely does justice to the claims of our brave commander. When that dread storm was perceived to be approaching, the gallant Zieten, feeling that he had not the confidence of his sovereign, and resenting as it became him the undue returns which he had experienced, availed himself of an illness under which he laboured, as a pretence for quitting the service. He appeared to be unshaken in his resolution; and all messages from the king proved vain. Frederic was now sensible of his value; and we think that we do not say too much, when we assert that he saved himself and his kingdom by his success in the sick chamber of Zieten,—that he secured his final triumph in the dreadful struggle that was pending, at the bed-side of this veteran. From the close of that eventful contest, Frederic embraced every occasion of doing him honour, and of shewing him friendship.

The circumstances of the General's parentage, and of his early days, seem to have had so much influence on his future destiny, that we submit the author's account of them to our readers; who will not fail to notice in it a trait of the hero which is highly deserving of attention, which displays in a striking manner the force of early inclination, and which corroborates the notion that nature powerfully impels to their proper career those whom she destines for eminence:

'John Joachim de Zieten was born on the 18th of May, 1699, at Wustrau, a village belonging to his family situated in the county of Ruppin, seven German miles from Berlin. His father, Joachim Matthias de Zieten, was a country gentleman who resided on his own estate, unemployed either in a civil or military capacity. He married Elizabeth Catherine de Jurgas of the house of Ganzer, by whom he had four daughters and two sons; of the latter, one died in his infancy.

'M. de Zieten's fortune did not exceed five hundred rix-dollars a year, which arose from the produce of his Wustrau estate *. On this moderate income did this gentleman and his family, whose wants were few, live, as people lived in good old times, towards the close of the

'* The village of Wustrau was at this time possessed by three different proprietors. M. de Zieten's portion amounted to about a sixth part.'

seventeenth century. The tricks and chicaneries of his wealthy neighbours, which often bore hard upon him, alone could make him feel the want of fortune, and under the pressure of these injurious proceedings he commonly displayed a command of temper not a little rare among the old Germans.

'Young de Zieten, in his father's house, was utterly unprovided with the means of instruction or culture. Left to himself at a time of life in which, at the present day, young men of condition are engaged in their studies and various exercises, his natural dispositions alone developed themselves, and gave him that character of originality which the hand of art in polishing would have much defaced.

'He employed the leisure of his early days in forming plans for the future. The void that prevailed in the life of his father, the small fortune which one day was to fall to his share, the narrow and gloomy limits of the mansion-house, to which he found himself confined, instead of afflicting and dismaying him, tended only to inflame his courage and foster his ambition. When yet a mere child, his imagination was busied in embellishing the inheritance of his ancestors, and when grown old, he has often acknowledged, that the plans he afterwards executed were in part the dreams of his youth.

'He betrayed from his early childhood a decided partiality for every thing that related to the military life. Whenever a soldier passed through Wustrau on a furlough, a circumstance that rarely happened, young Zieten followed him closely, could never sufficiently admire him, and was eagerly solicitous of the honour of imitating and resembling him. The Prussian soldiers, it is well known, wear their hair tied in a queue. Every Saturday young Zieten requested his father's leave to go to Ruppin, a German mile from Wustrau, where a soldier of the garrison with whom he had formed an acquaintance dressed his hair à la prussienne, and made him a large queue well stiffened and powdered, which served to ornament him for the ensuing week. He was at this time nine years of age.

'Nature had endowed him with a quick perception of right and wrong, and with the strongest propensity to resist oppression. These dispositions manifested themselves from his very childhood, and rendered him a correct and judicious observer of every thing that passed within the sphere of his notice. The unbecoming procedure of his neighbours irritated his mind, his father's mortifications became his own, and in the bitterness of his soul he has been often heard to swear he would one day put an end to them.'

Zieten entered the army as a standard-bearer in a regiment of infantry: but, on finding his turn for promotion passed by in four instances, he solicited and obtained leave to resign. The reflections introduced by his biographer on this occasion merit the utmost attention of every youth who is engaged in the same profession. Having observed that the straitened circumstances of our young soldier, the oppressions experienced by his father from more wealthy neighbours, the slights manifested towards himself in his regiment on account of his diminu-

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tive figure and his shrill voice, and the want of powerful friends, had produced effects by no means favourable on a temper naturally violent, the author thus proceeds:

'This first essay of the military life was ill calculated to soften the asperity of his manners. Of this I shall give the reader a single example. The Germans, it is well known, have always had the reputation of great drinkers. This vice which prevailed in the Prussian army was particularly in vogue in the regiment of Schwerin, and the following custom was always religiously observed. The officer of the day took care to provide the guard-house with a hogshead of beer, which he and his comrades never failed to empty. Each in his turn was obliged to swallow at one draft a full quart-mug: he who could not perform this feat was derided, and none were allowed, on any pretext whatever, to be exempted from this Bacchanalian exercise. This proved no small embarrassment to young Zieten, whose puny stomach was unable to contain such floods of beer, and who of course was extremely averse to the ceremony. He was at a loss how to act in order to avoid a thousand disagreeable contingencies, and being every moment under the necessity of fighting a duel. At last he was able to prevail on his comrades to allow him, instead of emptying the monstrous jug, to drink a small glass of brandy, which was less disagreeable to him, as well as less detrimental to his constitution.

'To this excess in drinking, to these gross customs which bore the stamp of the age and which fashion had rendered honourable, were joined excesses of another kind more conformable to nature, to which young Zieten, whose passions now began to unfold themselves with ardour, found himself more inclined, and which he had begun to teach himself to think he might indulge with impunity. How fortunate was it for him that he was checked in the beginning of a career which threatened such mischief to his moral character! In his peaceful retirement he had full leisure for reflection, to foster those meditations of which he himself was the subject, and to prepare in silence for his real destination.

'Ardent, ambitious, and naturally inclined to excess, he might have been plunged into inextricable difficulties, had he met with that reception at his first entrance into life which is commonly given to young men favoured by fortune. He would probably have lost sight of, or never attained the splendid part he was one day to act. His lot involved him in a series of perplexities, recalled his attention to himself, and taught him that he could only gratify the ambition with which he was inspired and advance his fortunes, by depending on himself alone, and founding all his plans and all his hopes on the basis of real desert. To listen to such dictates, and to follow such counsels, both genius and resolution were required. Zieten was not deficient in either the one or the other, and thus it was that the first germs of that moral force, that vigour of character which were afterwards so much admired, developed themselves in his young mind.'

He employed some time in settling his private affairs, and then was able to obtain admission again into the service, on advantageous terms.

It

It is impossible to peruse this narrative without being struck with the numerous narrow escapes for life which occur in it. At one time, Zieten has scarcely crossed a bridge before it falls; on another occasion, traversing a frozen lake, he is warned, just in time, to quit a track in following which he must inevitably have perished; a humane peasant finds him lifeless in the snow, his horse, as he was hunting, having fallen under him, and tumbled over him; at another time, running eagerly after game into a wood, in which lay a number of dead cattle, the mephitic air affected him so seriously that he was barely able to stagger into the road, where he fell into a swoon, from which by timely assistance he recovered; and, extraordinary as it may appear, at a subsequent period, he had nearly fallen a victim to assassination attempted by his immediate superior officer.

From the person to whom we have been just alluding, who was jealous of Zieten's superior merit, he suffered every degree of ill usage that the most base heart could devise and practise. Once, being insulted by him in the grossest manner, Zieten challenged him: he was too cowardly to obey the summons, but complained to the General; a court martial followed; and a year's imprisonment was the consequence. On the return of Zieten, the regiment having become sensible to his merits and worth, and holding his adversary in contempt, the latter

'Had recourse to base and contemptible expedients; he even went so far as to determine to rid himself by assassination of a man whose presence now furnished him with a continual subject of self-reproach. He often laid wait for him in the street during night, and one evening in particular he certainly would have killed him had not Zieten turned about in time, and by the manliness of his looks and demeanour overawed his assassin, and palsied his arm which was already lifted up to strike the blow.

'May the young and boisterous who are engaged in the military life learn from Zieten, on the present occasion, how to model their own conduct! Let a man, without education or culture, be their pattern, when they are told, that the manner in which he corrected the assassin was by burying the act in silent oblivion!

'This generous silence, however, was unable to still the public voice, which nevertheless continued to run violently against him, and rendered him the object of universal indignation.'

This officer now perceived that he was universally shunned, and that he was even disdained by a lady with whom he had an intrigue, and who had assisted very materially in his persecution of Zieten:

'Enraged at this reverse of fortune, he made choice of the lady's birth day to try a last and desperate expedient. Inflamed with love and wine, and tremblingly anticipating the fate that awaited him, if he did not

not wash away in the blood of his enemy the dishonour with which his reputation was soiled, he called forth the wrecks of his courage, attacked Zieten in the open street, in the day time, as he was coming out of a house, and involved him in a singular combat, which produced effects that gave birth to one of the most remarkable vicissitudes of his life.

'Every advantage was on the side of the assailant. Zieten had scarcely time to draw his sword and stand upon his defence. A new disaster likewise befel him; his sword shivered in pieces while he was parrying a stroke which threatened to cleave his skull. The captain, as the reader may easily believe, would have been base enough to take advantage of this accident in order to terminate the quarrel, and Zieten would inevitably have been lost, if he had not had the presence of mind to throw the hilt of his sword in his antagonist's face, who immediately staggered and fell upon the pavement. Zieten the mean while laid hold of a new kind of weapon which was fortunately near at hand. This weapon was a large lever belonging to some brewing utensils which was reared against a pump. The young warrior, like another Hercules, brandishes his club; his adversary, who was now upon his legs again, waves aloft his sabre; the unequal conflict is renewed, and address contends with superior force. A third person arrived; it was an officer, and Zieten begged the use of his sword. The officer refuses his request, and rushing between the combatants protects the weaker of the two. The officer on guard appears, and having separated them, puts them both under arrest.

'This was what the captain desired. Fortune had been very favourable to him, and he imagined he had done wonders in having combated with a disarmed foe. He trusted he had given such proofs of courage as were sufficient to re-establish his reputation in the regiment, and he flattered himself besides that this second affray would completely blacken the lieutenant in the eyes of the king, and hasten his final ruin.'

Zieten was not insensible to his unpleasant situation: but from his brother officers he met with every attention which could soothe a mind full of distressing apprehensions. A court martial, as before, had been instituted; and every engine was set in motion, to accomplish the ruin of the unprotected lieutenant.

'Six weeks elapsed, and the sentence of the court martial arrived from Berlin and surprised every one who heard it. The captain was condemned to suffer three months' imprisonment for drawing the first, and Zieten was broke for having thrown the hilt of his sword in the captain's face. This incident, which in fact was nothing more than a justifiable defence against an apparent attempt to assassinate him, became a pretext for loading the innocent with the chastisement of the guilty. The severe and unjust sentence ought not, however, to be attributed to the king, as his majesty had been taken by surprise, and acted under the strongest prejudices in disfavour of Zieten. The prince, in fact, imagined he was doing an act of justice, and rendering a service to the regiment, in thus ridding it of an officer who had been represented

represented to him as a hot-headed and dangerous man; and in this point of view it was, that he confirmed the sentence in every particular.'

What follows is important, since it illustrates character, and may, if duly weighed, advance us in the interesting science of human nature:

'Thus was the military career of Zieten terminated for a second time in a humiliating manner, and to all appearance irretrievably, while his dastardly adversary enjoyed the completest triumph. This triumph, however, was not of long duration; the tardy vengeance of fate at length overtook him, and we shall see him make his appearance again in the sequel, in a very different point of view.

'Zieten acquired new consideration and esteem by the manly dignity with which he supported his adverse fortune. He gave way to no murmurs, nor complaints, nor did he meditate any act of vengeance against the authors of his disgrace. He yielded to his fate, and retired in a peaceable manner to Wustrau, where, though to all appearance free and master of his actions, he could not help considering himself a captive, leading a life unenlivened by honour, profession and prospect. The vigour of his mind was cramped, and his faculties were palsied. Had he possessed less delicacy and more levity of disposition, had he felt the glow of patriotism in a cooler degree, or consulted either his resentment or his interest, he would have made a tender of his service to some foreign power. The idea, indeed, often came into his mind, yet he did what few would have done in his place,—he opposed his duty to the keenness of his feelings, and happily preserved himself for his country.

'What might not in fact be expected from a man in whom the inclination and the power to act agreeably to such motives were united, and who, subjecting the emotions of his wounded heart to the sacred laws of honour and those of his country, was determined to recognize no other? The efforts he made upon himself, the many conflicts he endured, doubtless contributed to render him that great character he invariably approved himself to be, during the rest of his life.

'Supported by the consciousness of his own innocence, and convinced of the injustice of fortune, Zieten passed several months at Wustrau in uninterrupted seclusion. This way of life at length grew intolerable, and he resolved to return to Berlin. Conscious that he was unable singly to push his fortune there, and that the king was too much exasperated against him to receive him again into his service, without the mediation of powerful friends, he overcame, on the present occasion, the aversion he had to all adventitious recommendation. His pride bent under the yoke of necessity, and his ardour to serve his country at length subdued his repugnance to act the part of a suppliant. He accordingly paid his court to some of the generals who lived on familiar terms with the king, and particularly to marshal de Buddenbrock and general de Flanz, who having soon discovered his merit, and considering him as the victim of envy and intrigue, promised him their good offices, as soon as it would be at all prudent to exert them in his behalf, for at the present moment the very mention

of

of his name would be sufficient to put his majesty into an ill humour.'

The succeeding narrative deserves attention, as it shews the origin of a most celebrated corps in all the wars of the great Frederic, and as it gave the commencement and the turn to the future destiny of Zieten:

'The happy moment at last arrived. The king, having paid a visit to his daughter, the margavine of Bayreuth, observed at that court a small corps of hussars, which particularly attracted his notice. This troop, which was chiefly employed in escorting the margravian family in the excursions they made, had been sent, in their best accoutrements, to meet the king on his arrival on the frontiers. At the sight of a corps so splendidly equipped and so completely mounted, Frederic William was seized with the most violent inclination to have a similar one in his own service, to which he was desirous to assign a more military destination, and which he wished to form under his own immediate inspection. He had in the year 1722, created two companies of hussars in Prussia, and in the year 1730 his most favourite employment was the organization of a third at Berlin, composed of the finest men of the Bayreuth company, which the margrave had now given him, together with some volunteers of the same country, the flower of the hussars of the two Prussian companies, and some young recruits enlisted in Hungary. Such was the origin of the regiment of Zieten, which afterwards became so celebrated on account of their own bravery, as well as that of their chief.

'The king had named the captain and cornet of the new company; the lieutenant was not yet appointed. His majesty commissioned general de Buddenbrock to look out for a man properly qualified for this kind of service. The general, who knew and esteemed Zieten, cast his eye upon him, and proposed him to the king. He had foreseen the monarch's anger, and bore the first fury of it with patience. The king declared he would not hear Zieten any more spoken of; the general replied that he was a very worthy man, and that he himself would be answerable for his conduct. At length general de Flanz added his solicitations in favour of the lieutenant, and the king, struck with the good opinion his two favourites seemed to entertain of Zieten, yielded to their entreaties, and expressed his desire to see him.

'A courier was immediately sent to Wustrau with these good tidings. He received orders to repair to Königs-Wusterhausen, and there wait his majesty's pleasure, who was upon a hunting party in that place. He found the captain and cornet already arrived, and who were to be presented with him to the king. His majesty, who had been put into a very good humour by the diversion the chace had afforded him, received the two other officers in the most gracious manner; but with regard to Zieten, he upbraided him in the presence of his comrades with every fault that had been laid to his charge, and of which he was fully persuaded he had been guilty. Zieten, conscious of his own innocence, observed nevertheless the most respectful silence. This was not the moment to enter upon his justification; he felt it, and the two generals, his patrons, were of the same opinion.

sion. A word might have impeded his fortune, and perhaps irretrievably. The king at length, pleased with the submissive demeanour of Zieten, began to soften the asperity of his language. A calm succeeded the storm, and Zieten was appointed lieutenant of the hussars, "on condition, however, that he should behave himself in an orderly manner, and that his superior officer would keep a watchful eye over him *."

'This was no slight trial for the natural pride of Zieten's disposition; no small humiliation to him, at his re-entrance into the military life. Yet the love he bore his country, and which had hitherto prevented his offering his services to any foreign power, again came to his aid and imposed silence upon him. During the rest of his life he was unable to recollect this interview without emotion; and even at the most advanced stage of it, he could never speak on the subject, without betraying the deep impression it still made upon him.

'Zieten was thirty-one years of age when he entered the hussars, and it was not long before he began to find himself involved in new disasters. Captain de Benekendorf, his superior officer, had not forgot the scene of Wusterhausen, nor the orders he had received from the king to superintend the conduct of his lieutenant. He exercised the task in a manner incompatible with the honour and feelings of Zieten, whose moderation and patience were often put to the severest test. By frequent struggles with himself, however, he at last prevailed, and learnt in this new school, that those persons whom fortune destines to the rank of favourites have many mortifications to undergo preparatory to the enjoyments which are one day to fall to their share.'

Having experienced from his captain much gross ill treatment, fortune now begins to smile on Zieten; the monarch notices him, and admits him to his confidence; he is promoted, and becomes independent of his unworthy superior.

We are tempted to relate another adventure in which the fates, not yet reconciled to this hero, and assisted by his own indiscretion, had nearly reduced him to a very unpleasant predicament. It affords an useful lesson to promising aspirants after distinction. The French had invaded the empire; and Frederic William, having resolved to take an active part in repelling them, set out himself with this view, but on account of ill health was soon obliged to return to Berlin. In marching through the Dutchy of Weimar, Zieten was invited by the Duke to his camp, and to an entertainment, at which the wine was circulated rather too freely.

'Many ladies from the capital, among whom was the duke's mistress, came to visit the camp, and to grace with their presence a ball which was given to crown the festivity of the day. This fair and amiable lady made a deep impression on Zieten's heart. Inflamed with intemperance and lost in a tumult of sensations, he forgot he had a rival entitled to his respect, and whose jealousy kept pace with the increasing captivation of his guest. The scene might have grown serious had not Zieten, who was not much accustomed to

'* The king's own expression.'

drinking,

drinking, sunk under the pressure of inebriation. He was taken from table, and the duke, much delighted at this incident, ordered him to be carried, in the state of insensibility in which he lay, to Buttstädt and locked up in his chamber.

'The next morning Zieten, with some difficulty, broke loose from his confinement to assemble the troops, and make ready for their departure. At length, when he began to march, at about noon he was surprised to receive a visit from the duke. The prince had entirely laid aside his jealous apprehensions, and was the first to laugh at the scene that had taken place the preceding day. He expressed at the same time his desire to see the hussars make an evolution, and requested Zieten to gratify him with the spectacle. The captain, who thought it incumbent on him to return the kindness he had received at the hands of the duke, instantly began to make the necessary dispositions, and divided his men into several platoons, but his complaisance had like to have been attended with fatal consequences.

'The hussars were not yet become perfectly sober, and besides this a violent animosity prevailed in the detachment, which was composed of Berliners and Prussians, against the others, so that the sham combat became a real battle, and at the word given for firing, the two parties loaded their pistols with balls. Zieten was alarmed beyond description, when he perceived his troops were thus hastening to destroy each other, before they arrived in the presence of the enemy, and though he took instant measures to quell the affray, yet there were many wounded on both sides. The duke, who was much concerned at this incident, furnished them with carriages for their transport. Fortunately not any of them died, and in a short time they were all cured of the wounds they had received. Zieten was fearful lest the affair should reach the king's ear and involve him in new troubles; his majesty, however, happily remained in total ignorance of the transaction.

'These late events proved a salutary lesson to Zieten, and taught him to know both his troops and himself. From this time he assiduously endeavoured to suppress that spirit of rivalry which prevailed among them, and even during the rest of his march he began to find that his labour had not been ill bestowed. He likewise introduced severer modes of discipline, and by such exertions was afterwards enabled to prevent their falling into new excesses. As for himself, he resolved never to give way again to intemperance, and his future life shews that his resolution was not taken in vain.'

In this short warfare, Zieten practised the first rudiments in the art of war under Gen. Baronay, an Austrian partizan, to whom the king had recommended him, and whose esteem and friendship he secured. In the great Frederic's first war, that of the succession, Zieten, serving in Silesia, beat his instructor, took his whole regiment prisoners, and Baronay himself only escaped by scaling a precipice. He recognized his pupil, and nobly acknowleged his superior merit.

'The king died in the year 1740. In him Zieten lost a prince whom he loved as the author of his fortune, and whom he respected

as the founder of the Prussian army, who from a rigorous judge had become a zealous patron, and whose severities had been transformed into benefactions and favours. Whenever he spoke of this monarch, it was always with impressions of admiration and gratitude, and with the flattering consciousness of having overcome his prejudices by mere dint of merit.

'On the accession of Frederic II. all the splendid prospects of Zieten seemed on the point of vanishing away, or at least of becoming extremely precarious. On ascending the throne, this prince set about realizing the plans which his genius had conceived in the silence of retreat. His system of government was already arranged, and the instruments which were to assist him in carrying it on were already chosen. Zieten, who had always kept aloof, and considered every kind of eagerness which bore any resemblance to flattery, as beneath himself, and incompatible with real desert, had not attacted the notice of that monarch. He was lost in the crowd; but while Frederic on his part was far from foreseeing that their names should one day be blended together in the annals of history, and their glory reflect mutual splendor on each other, Zieten waited patiently for the moment in which his sovereign should mark him out, and place him in his true sphere of action. The event has fulfilled his expectations, and justified the confidence he had both in his own worth and the penetration of the monarch.'

Zieten's future deeds belong to the history of the period, to which recourse must be had, if we would fully appreciate the merits of this extraordinary man.

So signal was the merit of Zieten in Silesia, during the war of the succession, that he rose most rapidly to promotion. That Frederic duly estimated his value, there can be no doubt: but, if we are to be guided by appearances, we shall infer that the monarch was as little pleased with a conduct which a proud spirit and a sense of conscious merit dictated, as ordinary princes would be; that he was as much the dupe of artful favourites; and that if he could better discriminate, he could as readily forget high deserts. During the greatest part of the time which intervened between the second war in Silesia and that of the seven years, the persons whom his merit had made the enemies of Zieten enjoyed the ear and confidence of Frederic; the brave and upright General experienced from him a treatment uniformly cool, and frequently severe and harsh; till the gathering of that storm, and the tender of his resignation, roused the monarch to a full sense of this veteran's importance.

Nothing more deeply arrests attention in this interesting work, than the details of Zieten's conduct when in an enemy's country; in which situation, his humanity does not yield to his valour. Frederic, acquainted with his disinterestedness, intimated to him that it was his duty to better his fortune while

he remained in a hostile territory: but the hint was lost on this brave man; and neglecting endless opportunities of enriching himself, he returned as poor as he went.

'Zieten was one of the number of those who assisted the king with his counsels as well as with his sword; and, to the duties of his station, he added the most tender concern for whatever related personally to his royal master. He was not ignorant, that Frederick, in a moment of despondency, had declared that death was the last friend he had in store. In their nocturnal conversations, when stretched upon a bed of straw, in a redoubt, exposed to the enemy's fire, the two heroes mutually communicated their pains and their secrets to each other,—it was Zieten, who opposed the hopes that ever animated him, to the melancholy *bodements* of the king;—it was Zieten who sustained the courage of his royal friend, by continually assuring him, that every thing would turn out prosperously. He would pronounce these words with such seeming conviction, and had so often repeated them, and in so positive a manner, that one day, when the king was more than ordinarily depressed by the sense of his misfortunes, and weary of hearing a kind of consolation which did not at all coincide with his way of thinking, his majesty asked him in a sarcastic tone,—if a new ally had joined the Prussian army. "No, sire," replied Zieten, "I know of no other than one who dwells above, and who will never forsake us." "But," rejoined the king, "he no longer works miracles."—"Be it so;" said Zieten, "we stand in no need of any:—let him fight for us, and we shall not fall." Soon after this, the king had an opportunity of observing the reasonableness of pious hope; that providence was not a vain name; and that the confidence of Zieten had been that of a christian hero.' The army came out unhurt from their camp, which had been transformed into a prison, and Frederick said to his general, with affected indifference, and in the genuine tone of sensibility, "For this time you have been in the right, Zieten; and your ally has kept his word."

The fair biographer, in recapitulating the traits which distinguished her hero, observes of him that

'As a general, and a commander in chief, he was never known to neglect any thing which had formerly been the object of his solicitude in the capacity of a subaltern officer. He extended to a whole regiment, to a whole army, the attentions he had at first begun to bestow upon a single company. On the march, he was either at the head of the rear of the column, and always indefatigably employed in providing for every possible contingency. At one time, he would slacken the march, in order to allow the hindermost to regain the ground they had lost. At another, he would fill up the gaps, reconnoitre the bridges, the defiles, the face of the country; in a word, it might be said, that he never had a better quarter-master-general than himself.

'When the army was encamped, Zieten was not satisfied till he had examined and adjusted every thing, entered into the minutest details, supplied every omission, and obviated every inconveniency. Whenever the king, as he imagined, had neglected a point, he would look to it; he posted or displaced the guards of the camp, augmented or diminished

minished their number. When the ground was uneven, it was his care to remove all obstructions, facilitate communications, construct bridges and every other necessary accommodation; and his orders were ever attended to as much as the immediate orders of the king.

'After having provided for the internal part of the camp, it was his custom to take a survey of its environs. By day and by night, while the rest of the army were taking their repose, he was on horseback, examining the face of the country in order to discover on what point the enemy might probably make an attack, and what spots were best adapted for making a defence. This was his invariable occupation, on the march, in camp, and in every position; whence the army had honoured him with the name of their guardian. When the infirmities of age began to grow upon him, and it sometimes happened that he fell asleep at the royal table, the king would never allow him to be disturbed The first time that the company, upon such an occasion, were about to awaken him, his majesty interrupted them, and said, "Let him sleep on; he has watched long enough for us."

'Frederick esteemed him highly for the manly firmness of his character, which the greatest military disasters were never able to shake, for a moment. Bred up in the midst of storms, he had learnt to face them without dismay. While others trembled, he remained calm, and placed his entire confidence in heaven. This placid intrepidity, this cool patience, this inexhaustible fund of resolution, had great influence upon the mind of his royal master, who had often, under the pressure of despair, sought the general's quarters, alone and during the night, in quest of consolation and advice. Often has the heart of the consoler been wrung with anguish, when instead of coinciding in his way of thinking, the desponding monarch has made him no other reply than, "It will not do; it cannot possibly succeed."

'Zieten extended even to the private soldier, the happy talent he possessed of encouraging the disheartened. He was aware, that the inaction and languor of camps are apt to give birth to discouragement, and that in such situations the distresses of want and hunger are felt with double severity by the troops. To prevent or mitigate their murmurs, he would often visit the ranks on foot, as well as on horseback, and invite the soldiers to come out of their tents. "Well, comrades!" he would say, "What are you doing there?" As soon as his voice was heard, they would instantly appear, and cry out, "Long live our good father Zieten!"—"Well, and how do things go on with you?" he would add.—"Bad enough," should they say; he was nevertheless able to apply a word of comfort. "Take courage, comrades," he would answer, "If things go ill to-day, they may grow better to-morrow." He has been frequently seen to alight from his horse, and converse with his veteran grenadiers: he has dispelled the cloud that hung upon their brows, and often rendered them insensible to the torments of hunger by regaling them plentifully with hope. This great popularity, accompanied with a frank benevolence of disposition, which extended itself indiscriminately to every individual in the camp, had gained him the respect and confidence of the whole army to such a degree, that with one common accord, as we have just seen, the soldiers had no other name for him than that of their father.'

The war being over, and the General returned, the biographer observes:

'What Zieten's feelings must have been, when at the head of his regiment, he entered the gates of Berlin, it is not easy to describe. Let the reader imagine what reflections must have engrossed his mind during the whole march with regard to the issue of this long and perilous war, and the singular felicity of his having escaped without any accident, and returned with the perfect use of all his limbs. Thrice had he accompanied the king into Silesia; thrice had gathered laurels there, and acquired new glory. How sincere must his satisfaction have been, to have so religiously acquitted himself of his promise, to fight and to conquer for his country! He might, indeed, have considered, as partly his own work, the future prosperity of a state, whose foundation had been laid by the war, whose after-progress would be the result of that glorious struggle; and such animating reflections must have afforded him no inconsiderable recompense for all his cares and toils.

'These brilliant remembrances, the high rank to which his own merit had raised him, his intimate connections with the king, filled up the measure of his happiness, and left him nothing further to desire. What he had formerly sown with pain, he now reaped with glory; and had it not been for the trials he had met with in the earlier stages of his life; the repeated victories he had gained over his passions; the progressive steps by which he arrived at so eminent a degree of perfection; – he would not have enjoyed, and preserved to the very close of his long career, that admirable serenity of mind which added new value to his existence, and to all the advantages that attended it.

'Each returning year produced him new sources of happiness and new honours. During the space of twenty-six years, his sovereign continued studiously attentive to distinguish him by fresh marks of his esteem, his friendship, it may almost be said, his veneration. The princes of the blood were eager to imitate the example of Frederick. Henry, Ferdinand, and the presumptive heir to the crown, considered themselves honoured by the zeal they shewed to do justice to the merits of Zieten. The court, the strangers that visited Berlin, equally admired the attentions which were shewn to this hero by those whose birth and rank were so far above his own; and, it was a fine spectacle for the whole country to see the subject thus noticed and caressed by his masters, and by the family of his kings.

'These distinctions, for which Zieten was indebted to his merit only, were no longer embittered by envy. His enemies had disappeared, and among the witnesses to his glory, he could only reckon applauders and friends. His countrymen in general, whether in civil or military capacities, whether inhabitants of towns or villages, esteemed him, cherished him, and looked upon him as a father, revered him as a hero, and considered themselves in some degree as partakers of his glory.

'His renown was not confined to the limits of his own country: it reached the most remote nations, where his name was universally

mentioned with that of Frederick the Great. Of all the Prussian generals, there was not one whose exploits excited the curiosity of strangers to such a degree, or their eagerness to know him. In visiting the monuments, the beauties, the extraordinary characters of Berlin, they could not refrain from paying particular attention to whatever related to Zieten. The empress of Russia, the queen of Sweden, were pleased to request his portrait; the latter presented him, in return with her own. His illustrious chief, prince Henry, likewise paid a similar attention to him.

'It was not only in the field of grandeur that Zieten was loaded with these flattering distinctions: a new kind of glory attended him in the applause of the lower classes of the people. His name was pronounced by them with enthusiasm; they paid him a kind of worship. There was scarcely a single person who was not accustomed to speak of him, who had not some striking particular to relate of him, who had not procured his portrait, whether well or ill engraved, and who did not take a pleasure in placing it beside that of the king. Zieten and his hussars were seen in the poorest houses, and their exploits and praises, in bad verses, were pasted against every cottage wall. A tobacconist at Aken upon the Elbe, made choice of his picture to wrap up his wares, and the envelope soon rendered the manufactory celebrated, and its concerns extensive.'

We have much exceeded the limits which we had prescribed to ourselves in this article, and must now take our leave of these volumes; testifying our unfeigned acknowlegements to Mr. Beresford for making us acquainted with a monument reared by the hand of genius and affection in honour of rare and transcendant merit. Seldom have we perused a work of superior interest; and to military readers the instruction must be equal to the entertainment. Several engravings, plans of battles, &c. illustrate the details.

Jo.

ART. V. *The Narrative of a Voyage of Discovery,* performed in His Majesty's Vessel the Lady Nelson, of Sixty Tons Burden, with Sliding Keels, in the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802, to New South Wales. By James Grant, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, &c. To which is prefixed, an Account of the Origin of Sliding Keels, and the Advantages resulting from their Use. The whole illustrated with elegant Engravings. 4to. pp. 220. 1l. 1s. Boards. Egerton.

EXPEDITIONS round the world have within these few years ceased to meet with the same degree of attention which they formerly obtained, and to which they were then well intitled. The early voyages were performed almost in darkness, in unfrequented tracks, and when the science of navigation was far behind its present state. Guided by conjecture more than by knowlege, the difficulties and dangers were proportionably

tionably greater: mankind looked to such undertakings with expectation; and expectation was generally gratified with some discovery of importance, or with events of an extraordinary nature. Practice, with the progress of improvement, has made the difficulties vanish, while frequency has worn away the novelty; and circumnavigations are now performed with the same degree of facility as voyages to the East Indies, and are seldom more productive of unusual events, except when discovery is one of the objects expressly attempted.

The voyage of Lieutenant Grant is termed by him a Voyage of Discovery; to which appellation it has some claim; because he saw a part of the coast of New Holland which no European before him had seen, and was likewise employed by the governor of New South Wales on an examination of other parts of the coast. The principal purpose, however, of the voyage, was to make experiment of the benefit of sliding keels; and Mr. G. has prefixed to his narrative a Dissertation on such Keels, in which he has enumerated all the advantages that have been attributed to them. These are specified under six heads; the first is that vessels constructed with sliding keels will sail faster, steer easier, tack and wear quicker, and in less room, than others. 2. Such vessels will carry more freight, and draw less water. 3. They will ride more easy at anchor. 4. They will take the ground better. 5. In case of shipwreck or springing a leak, they are more safe and more likely to be saved. Lastly, that they will answer better as men of war, floating batteries, &c. In this statement, Mr. Grant has rather deviated from the point in question; and he has rendered it perplexed, by attributing to sliding keels, besides their own merits, those which are the properties of a flat-floored bottom. The business would have been more clearly comprehended, if he had first explained the advantages and disadvantages of vessels with flat or full bottoms, compared with those which are sharp-built; and, secondly, had shewn the use of the sliding keel in obviating or correcting the disadvantages of the flat bottoms.

Sliding keels, as expressed in the first head, certainly contribute to easy steerage, and to the performance of evolutions in a small space. That they increase the rate of sailing is a very problematical position, since the sliding keel, when down, augments the resistance to the vessel's progress: though it may, sometimes, enable a flat-floored vessel to carry more sail. The principal intention, however, is to shew that a flat floor is better adapted for fast sailing than a sharp but deeper bottom, 'because water is the less easy to divide, the deeper it is.' To exemplify this idea, the following case is made:

'Suppose a frigate drawing seventeen feet, and another alike in burthen drawing eleven; the last has a body of six feet less to divide, opposing only three, two, or one Keel, as may be found necessary to make her hold a good wind; while the other has six feet depressed, or about one-third of her real size opposing the water: of course she has a body of water to displace and force through equal to the difference of eleven feet to seventeen, and the deeper the stronger.'

If the author means that vessels of equal burthen, and without any inequality in their length which might occasion a variation, will have to displace and force through unequal quantities of water in proportion to the difference of their own draught of water, he has not given this part of his subject a sufficient consideration. In the instance stated by him, one vessel would not have a body of six feet less to divide than the other: the body of water to be divided would be in quantity the same to both; the difference would be in the disposition; and the vessel drawing 17 feet would have the less to oppose near the surface. In this case, however, proof must rest on experiment, which does not seem to be in favour of the flat floor. The Dutch merchant ships, which, to accommodate the shoalness of the coast of Holland, are built with flatter bottoms than the trading vessels of any other European nation, have notoriously the character of being the slowest sailers.

We shall not detain the reader longer on a question which we cannot satisfactorily resolve. Mr. Grant argues earnestly in favour of the sliding keels; and it must be allowed that they are capable of being serviceable in many cases to ships with flat bottoms, and of giving them advantages which hitherto have been peculiar to sharp-built ships. How far these advantages would compensate for the additional expence of timber and building, and for the loss of stowage, are considerations on which we cannot pretend to decide.—Mr. Grant has given, as a frontispiece to his book, an engraved representation of two boats and a cutter with sliding keels.

Let us now speak of the voyage. The Lady Nelson sailed from England in March 1800, in company with a fleet of our outward-bound East India ships. It soon appeared that she was not a vessel of good condition, such as might be favourable to an experiment; for she was not able, by her own sailing, to keep up with the fleet, and was taken in tow by one of the India ships. In this manner she was dragged along several days; till the weather becoming stormy, her commander was apprehensive that his vessel would be too much strained by a continuance of such assistance: the tow rope was therefore cast off on the approach of night; and by the next morning the East India fleet had left the Lady Nelson out of sight. Besides sailing ill, she

was

was leaky; and among seamen who saw her, the opinion was general that she was an unsafe vessel, and not fit to encounter stormy weather: but Mr. G. found her able to bear the heaviest gales; and she performed her passage to Port Jackson, in New South Wales, without any material accident, arriving there in December. Lieutenant Grant's account of his run through Bass's Strait may be consulted with benefit by seamen who may be bound that way; and it is accompanied with a chart of the part of the coast seen by him, in which his track along it is drawn.

After her arrival in New South Wales, this vessel was sent by the governor to Hunter's River, which lies at a small distance to the North from Port Jackson. We give the subsequent extract from the author's account of this expedition:

'The Lady Nelson was now ordered to receive on board Lieutenant-Governor Colonel Paterson, and convey him to Hunter's River, which, from the abundance of coals found on its banks, has obtained the name of Coal River. The object of this voyage was to make a survey of the river, to gain a knowledge of its natural productions, and whatever else might appear worthy of observation. Having all things in readiness, we set sail on the 10th of June, with the Frances schooner, which latter vessel was to be loaded with coals. With Colonel Paterson, we received on board Dr. Harris, Surgeon of the New South Wales Corps, Ensign Barreillier (the Surveyor), and a number of workmen and labourers, for the purpose of cutting and sawing timber, digging and loading coals, and other necessary works. With us likewise went one of the natives, named Bangaree.'—

'On the next day, the weather was variable; and having a person on board as a pilot who had lately sailed from Sydney to the river for coals, I thought I could rely on his knowledge of the place, but herein I proved to be mistaken. He was nearly entering a wrong place, being deceived by the appearance of an island, and Hunter's, or Coal River, having one at its entrance. —As we were in 17 fathoms water, and the weather was fair, I got my boat out, and Dr. Harris went on shore to reconnoitre the place. In the meantime I brought up with the kedge, and set my people to fishing, who caught a number of snappers and other fish. On Dr. Harris's return, he brought with him a native who, on seeing the boat, had run down to it, crying out several times, *Whale Boat!* and *Budgerie Dick!* or *Good Dick*,—a name we supposed had been given him by the people sent in search of those who ran away with the Norfolk, as before mentioned. This man had some fish with him, which he threw into the boat first, and then jumped into it himself, without the least hesitation. The report which Dr. Harris made on board was, that not the least appearance of any river was to be discerned; but the sea broke very heavily in an inlet behind the island.

'Our new asquaintance Dick, as soon as he got on board, continued his cries of *Whale Boat!* and in order to discover what he meant by them, I introduced him to Bangaree, with directions to the latter

to question him on the subject. Bangaree pointed to him to sit down, which, I have observed before, implied that a stranger was received with friendship. It was in vain for me to desire Bangaree to proceed in his enquiries, there was another etiquette which could not be omitted, and this was a continuance in profound silence. This lasted for about twenty minutes, at the expiration of which time they by degrees entered into discourse, drawing nearer to each other, as they began to talk. We received, however, little information from Dick, whether it was that Bangaree did not well understand him; and I am inclined to think so, for some of our people, who were best acquainted with the language spoken by the natives round Sydney, were at the same loss.'

The vessel arrived in the River on the 14th.

'We immediately set about making the different arrangements for completing the object of our voyage. The Colonel and I went on shore to examine the different strata of coals, taking with us a miner, who pointed them out to us very distinctly, and we found them running from side to side of the mountain, of various qualities and degrees of thickness. At low water, coals proper for fuel were to be gathered up from the reef before mentioned; and when the tide was up, we could work a pier. Accordingly, having orders to load the schooner with all expedition with coals and wood, I had the satisfaction to see her sail with a cargo of both on the 26th of June, eleven days after her arrival.

'It may be imagined that coals were found in great plenty, when I mention that the schooner sailed with forty tons of coals on board, and that we had only one man employed to dig the mine. The spot where these coals are found is clear of tree or bush for the space of many acres, which are covered with a short tender grass, very proper for grazing sheep, the ground rising with a gradual ascent, intersected with vallies, on which wood grows in plenty, sheltered from the winds, forming the most delightful prospects. This place might serve as a station for the wood-cutters and colliers; it affords pasture for sheep, its soil in general being good, though on the whole not so rich as on Western Port. Dr. Harris and Mr. Barreillier penetrated to some distance inland: they saw many kangaroos, and met with a native, who followed them some time, and then left them.'

'I visited the coal mine in company of Colonel Paterson, and we were shewn, by the miner, several veins of a most excellent quality. Amongst the rocks we found plenty of what is called liver of iron.'—Mr. Grant mentions the skeletons of two natives of New South Wales, which were sent to London to H. L. Thomas, Esq.

'They formed a complete set of bones belonging to a male, and an entire female skeleton. His opinion of them I beg leave to copy from a letter he favoured me with on the subject, which I trust will not be uninteresting to my readers:

"Upon a careful examination (says he) I thought that the impression formed by the muscles on the bones were very indistinctly marked,

marked, and that the bones were slender and weak in proportion to their length. With respect to the *cranium*, it much more resembled that of the African than the European; though that of the male differed very materially from both, approaching in its shape nearer to the ape. The upper margin of the boney orbits in which the eyes are lodged, projected considerably, which give them the appearance of being compressed from above, which entirely took away the circular shape at the interior part, making them somewhat oblong from the inner to the outer angles. The teeth were very strong and projected considerably, the left incisor of the upper jaw was wanting, and the socket which had contained it was completely obliterated, a circumstance which proves that the tooth must have been removed some time. The space from the teeth to the extremity of the chin was extremely short, and retreated backwards. I could not help remarking the great size of the *foramen magnum* of the occipital bone, and also of the boney canals leading to the internal parts of the organ of hearing. The sides of the *cranium* were flattened, and the internal capacity of the skull was very small."

The author left the Lady Nelson at Port Jackson, and embarked in a vessel named the Anna Josepha, which took from New South Wales a cargo of coals and spars for masts, bound round Cape Horn for the Cape of Good Hope. In this passage, the Anna Josepha touched at the Falkland Islands, (in January 1802.) They got geese there which were 'excellent eating without the least taste of fish, as they live here on grass and sea-weed. They are not shy, and will suffer you to come very near them before they move, and then not very fast. We brought some of them with us alive to the Cape.'—The method of preserving them was 'to split them down the back, wash them well in salt water, sprinkle rock salt over them, then expose them to the air to dry, and afterwards pack them up in barrels, with a proper quantity of salt to keep them for the voyage.'

Another piece of useful knowlege, of a similar kind, was communicated to Lieutenant Grant by the commander of an American ship which they met at the Falkland Islands. 'He informed me,' says the author, 'that the American sailors had discovered potatoes, eaten raw, to be a powerful antiscorbutic, and that their whaling vessels constantly took a quantity with them to eat raw as an antidote against the scurvy. He had planted a garden here, as was the custom with vessels visiting this place, and he brought me some potatoes fresh dug from it.'—'He made use of the young leaves of the common dock, boiling them as cabbage, to eat with meat. He stripped the leaf from the rib or stem in the middle, which he said had a purgative quality.'

The coals from New South Wales sold at the Cape of Good Hope for 36 rix dollars per ton.

From

From the foregoing account, as well as by the extracts which we have given from this work, the reader will see that, though the voyage of Lieutenant Grant cannot claim much celebrity as a Voyage of Discovery, his narrative contains entertainment and useful information. Much credit also appears to be due to Mr. G. for his successful and intrepid perseverance in a hazardous undertaking; and we are glad to learn that his conduct, on this and on a subsequent occasion, in an engagement with the enemy, has received the approbation of government, who have promoted him to the rank of a Commander.

Capt. By.

ART. VI. *The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. IX.* 4to. Printed at Dublin; and sold in London by Payne and Mackinlay. Price 1l. 6s. 6d. Boards.

A LARGE volume is here presented to the public by this respectable society in our sister island; and the topics embraced in the essays which it contains, though not very numerous, are interesting to science, to literature, and to political economy. In the first and last of these departments, particularly, we find papers of very considerable merit; and we bespeak the attention of our readers to them in the abridged report which our inadequate limits will prescribe to us. According to the custom of this Academy, the memoirs commence in the class of

G.2.

SCIENCE.

On Dr. Halley's Series for the Calculation of Logarithms, by the Rev. Richard Murray, *D.D. late Provost of Trinity College, near Dublin.*—When we have applauded the zeal with which Dr. Murray seems to have cultivated the abstract sciences, we have no power of extending our commendation. We must indeed confess our opinion that the present paper deserves not much attention; and that it can neither add to the reputation of the author, nor reflect lustre on the judgment of those friends who have published it. We say not this, we trust, with unnecessary harshness, for after an attentive perusal we find nothing new in result, nor ingenious in principle; and the method of deduction is deficient in elegance and conciseness.

An Examination of various Solutions of Kepler's Problem, and a short practical Solution of that Problem pointed out. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, *A.M. Andrews Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin, & F.R.S.*—Kepler, it is well known, first proposed and solved the problem which bears his name, namely, to find the true anomaly from the mean. Various solutions have

have been since given, and the author of this paper compares their different degrees of accuracy. He is enabled to make this comparison by means of two series, investigated *a priori*, for the excentric and true anomaly; which series serve as scales of comparison. Thus, if γ be true anomaly, u, excentric, and nt, mean; and if e be the excentricity; then,

$$u = nt + e.\ sin.\ nt + \frac{e^2}{1.4}.2.\ sin.\ 2\,nt. + \&c.$$

and $$\gamma = nt + \left\{ \alpha.\, e + \beta\, e^3 + \gamma\, e^5 \right\}.sin.\ nt + \&c.$$

These are the true expressions: consequently, taking the principle on which, in an indirect solution, the approximation is made, and expanding γ accordingly, if it appears that

$$\gamma = nt + \left\{ \alpha.\, e + \beta'\, e^3 + \gamma'\, e5 \right\}.sin.\ nt + \&c.$$

then the error, or the correction to be applied, is

$$(\beta - \beta')\, e^3 + (\gamma - \gamma')\, e^5 + \&c.$$

This is a very ingenious and exact method of estimating the accuracies of the several indirect solutions; and the author deduces the series which serve as scales of comparison, and expands into series to be compared the approximated expressions for the excentric and true anomaly, by the aid of theorems given by himself in the 7th volume of these Transactions. The methods examined in this paper are those of Kepler, Boulliald, Seth Ward, Mercator, the second Cassini, Newton, Machin, Simpson, Matthew Stewart, and Lacaille.

In examining Boulliald's correction of Ward's hypothesis, Mr. Brinkley says:

'It is shewn that this correction, contrary to what has been generally supposed, at least in more modern times, was a real correction, and afforded a very short and exact method of deriving the true from the mean anomaly. The error is of the same order as the third power of the excentricity, and the error of Ward's hypothesis is of the same order as the second power of the excentricity. Observations made at that time, could not have detected any error in the places of Venus, the Sun, Jupiter and Saturn; and even in Mars, the error, when at its maximum, could scarcely have been noticed, except when Mars was then in opposition.'—

'Hence, for all the planets the hypothesis of Boulliald is more accurate than that of Ward, and by no means deserves the censure that has been passed upon it by some authors. Emerson observes, the correction of Seth Ward's hypothesis given by Boulliald only mends it in some places, and in others makes it worse. Simpson, as I observed, mistook this correction. He supposed Q H A to be the mean anomaly, and R the place of the planet. On this supposition he found the error much the same as the error of Seth Ward's

Ward's anomaly. Montucla says, that Boulliald's hypothesis "ne vaut pas mieux."

'Indeed, it is remarkable how much Boulliald has been misrepresented.

'Adam Smith, in his History of Astronomy, says, "Thus Boulliald, who censured this hypothesis of Ward, invented another of the same kind, infinitely more whimsical and capricious." Then he proceeds to give, not the second hypothesis of Boulliald, but the first hypothesis to which Ward had shewn his own hypothesis equivalent.'

It is remarkable that, of the two practical solutions given by Sir Isaac Newton, the second, which was preferred by its great author, is not sufficiently exact for the present state of astronomy: whereas the first, with some alterations, is superior to any other that has been given.

As it is commonly known that Machin furnished a general solution, it may be proper to state Mr. B.'s observations on that solution:

'Machin has also given a solution of Kepler's problem, remarkable for its ingenuity. His motive for attempting the solution was, as he tells us, to give one which might be general. None of the methods, according to him, being applicable to excentric orbits, and all of them requiring some rule or hypothesis to begin the computation. He himself was aware that his method was too intricate for common practice in regard to the planetary orbits, and had he considered Newton's first method, he would not have asserted that no rule was subsisting, but what was absolutely useless in the elliptical orbits of comets. With respect to a rule for beginning the computation, it may be observed that if the mean anomaly be assumed for the first excentric anomaly, the error of the first corrected anomaly will be of the same order as the third power of the excentricity; the second of the seventh power, &c. and therefore in the most excentric orbits, such an assumption would be sufficient for beginning the computation. Machin's method, however, is peculiarly applicable to very excentric orbits. It consists of two parts. By the first is obtained an approximation for beginning the computation. The rule, although intricate in practice, is as accurate for very excentric orbits, as for orbits of small excentricity, and in this the merit of the method consists. By the second part, the approximated excentric anomaly is corrected. His method of correction is, as may be readily shewn, deduced from a combination of Kepler's and Newton's first method; but the author has not acknowledged this circumstance.'—

'His method of obtaining a first approximation is general for all elliptic orbits whatever, and will give the excentric anomaly always sufficiently near for correcting it by his second rule. The greatest error is $1^{\circ}.13'\frac{1}{2}$, viz. when the ellipse is evanescent, and the mean anomaly $= 180^{\circ}$. When the excentric anomaly is less than 23° the use of the second rule is unnecessary, for then the first approximation gives the excentric anomaly to less than a second.

'It will be very rarely necessary to repeat the second rule, for the excentric anomaly found by one operation will never err more than 2″

from the truth, and that only in the extreme case, viz. when the ellipse is evanescent and the excentric anomaly 169°.

'This solution, therefore, of Kepler's problem is complete, but the practice of it, particularly as given by the author, is not so convenient in the planetary orbs as other methods.'

After having examined the several methods, Mr. B. gives one of his own, formed by a combination of the methods of Kepler, Newton, and the second Cassini.

'The very small share, (he says,) I claim in it is from having recommended that combination of solutions. The solutions of the two latter have been separately recommended by writers on astronomy. Cassini has not always been referred to as the author of his method, and Newton rarely. The merit of Cassini's method is derived from its simplicity, and ready application to the planetary orbits. Newton's solution was the first that was applicable to orbits of every degree of excentricity.'

We regard this memoir as very curious and instructive, and as an eminent specimen of the author's mathematical erudition and ingenuity.

A Theorem for finding the Surface of an Oblique Cylinder, with its Geometrical Demonstration. Also, an Appendix, containing some Observations on the Methods of finding the Circumference of a very Excentric Ellipse; including a Geometrical Demonstration of the remarkable Property of Elliptic Arcs discovered by Count Fagnani. *By the Rev.* J. Brinkley, *A.M. M.R.I.A. Andrews Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin.*—The demonstration of this theorem is purely geometrical. The theorem itself is this: 'the surface of an oblique cylinder is equal to a rectangle contained by the diameter of its base and the circumference of an ellipse, the axes of which are the length and perpendicular height of the cylinder.'

The author says that this result is easily obtained by a fluxionary process, but he doubts whether such result has been given. We are not able to refer to the precise volume, but, unless we are much deceived, it may be easily obtained from an expression for the surface of an oblique cone given by Euler, in one of the volumes of the *Novi Comm. Petrop.* It may however be immediately deduced thus: let r = radius of bases, s = slant side, h = perpendicular height, θ an angle radius 1, and S = surface: then $\frac{S'}{4} = r\theta'\surd(h^2 + (s^2 - h^2)\cos.^2\theta)$

$$= r\theta'\surd\left\{h^2 + (s^2 - h^2)\left\{1 - \sin.^2\theta\right\}\right\}$$

$$= r\theta'\surd\left\{s^2 - (s^2 - h^2)\sin.^2\theta\right\}$$

$= rs$

$$= rs\theta' \surd \left\{ 1 - \frac{s^2 - h^2}{s^2} . \sin^2 \theta \right\}$$

$\therefore S = rs$ + circumf. Ellipse (E) axes 1 and $\frac{h}{s}$, or

$= r$ + E, axes s, and h,

which is the theorem required.

There is a passage by D'Alembert in the Encyclopedie which points to a very simple method of finding the surface, independently of a fluxionary calculus. It is this:

"*Quand le cylindre est oblique, la determination de sa surface courbe depend de la rectification de l'Ellipse; car, ayant imaginé un plan perpendiculaire à l'axe, et par consequent à tous les cotés du cylindre, ce plan formera, sur le cylindre, une Ellipse; et la surface du cylindre sera égale au produit de la circumference de cette Ellipse par le coté du cylindre.*"

Now if p be a perpendicular drawn from a point in the side of the cylinder perpendicular to the other side, $\frac{p}{r} = \frac{h}{s}$; and if E' be the Ellipse mentioned in the preceding passage, $rE = sE'$. Consequently, $S = sE' = rE$, the theorem required.

When the value of surfaces, or of any other object of investigation, is made to depend on the length of circular or elliptical arcs, such value is considered as determined: since mathematicians have afforded the means of calculating such arcs. If the ellipse has small excentricity, its length may be calculated by a series ascending by the powers of e (e the excentricity); and if the ellipse be very excentric, its length may be calculated by a series ascending by the powers of b ($b = \surd (1 - e^2)$) which series has been given by Euler and Legendre: but if the ellipse be of mean excentricity, then it is to be converted, by the aid of Legendre's theorem, into two other ellipses of less or greater excentricity. Thus, suppose E, E', E'' &c. to be ellipses, of which the excentricities are e, e', e'', &c.

$$e' = \left(\frac{e^2}{1 + \surd (1 - e^2)}\right)^2, \quad e'' = \left(\frac{e'^2}{1 + \surd (1 - e'^2)}\right)^2, \text{ &c.}$$

then, $E = \alpha E' + \beta E''$, or $= \alpha' E'' + \beta' E'''$, or

$= \alpha'' E''' + \beta'' E'''' =$ &c.

As to the question which of these expressions is to be taken, that must be determined by the nature of the case. If the series for E' does not converge quickly enough, take the expression $E = \alpha'' E''' + \beta'' E''''$, or $\alpha''' E'''' + \beta''' E'''''$, and so on.

In the latter part of his memoir, Mr. B. gives, on geometrical principles, a demonstration of Fagnani's theorem, which assigns a line equal to the difference of two elliptical arcs, one measured

sured from the extremity of the transverse, the other from the extremity of the conjugate diameter. This is a theorem, then, which announces a curious geometrical property: but it has, moreover, its analytical uses. Thus, when the ellipse is excentric, and the length of its quadrant is to be computed from a series ascending by the powers of b, if the abscissa were put equal to 1, the expression for the arc involving the tangent of 90 degrees could not be computed *. The elliptic quadrant ($\mathcal{Q}$) is then computed by the aid of Fagnani's theorem; for since $E - E' = 1 - b$, and $E + E' = \mathcal{Q}$, $\therefore \mathcal{Q} = 2E - 1 + b$.

Mr. Brinkley's demonstration of Fagnani's theorem is, as we have already said, geometrical, and derived from a property of the ellipse: which property he rightly, in our opinion, affirms to be new.

Journal of the Thermometer, Barometer, Hygrometer, Winds, and Rain, kept at Windsor in Nova Scotia, by the Rev. W. Cochran, *President of King's College.*—No general deductions, nor particular observations, are made from the laborious notations of this journal.

Account of the Whynn Dykes in the Neighbourhood of the Giant's Causeway, Ballycastle, and Belfast, in a Letter to the Lord Bishop of Dromore, from William Richardson, *D. D. late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.*—Dr. R. laments that naturalists, who visit the Irish coast, rarely allow themselves sufficient time to examine any object; and that, while they remain there, they are more occupied in searching for arguments to support the theories which they patronize, than in diligently studying nature for information. Hence he accounts for their having either overlooked or misconceived certain facts respecting this basaltic part of the world; facts intimately connected with the study

* The following note deserves quotation:

'It may be proper to remark an error in a passage of the "Excerpta ex epistolis Newtoni," noticed, I believe, by none of the commentators. Two series are given for computing the length of an elliptic arc, and in finding the length of the quadrant, the semiaxis is directed to be bisected, and the arcs corresponding to the two abscissas to be found by the two series (page 312. art. 7. vol. 1. Horsley's edit.) But the direction in this passage is, as may be readily shewn, entirely impracticable, whenever the ratio of the axis major to the axis minor exceeds the subduplicate ratio of 5 : 3. For then one of the series will be diverging. When the excentricity is considerable, no division of the semiaxis major will render the application of the Newtonian series useful, as the convergency of one or other will not be greater than that of the common theorem for the whole circumference of an ellipse.'

of

of natural history. He informs us that his opportunities for examination have been superior to those of any other person; and he feels himself justified, after long and persevering inquiry, in resisting the opinion of some celebrated theorists, who maintain the igneous origin of basalt. He denies that the whynn dykes are *lava veins*, or that they give any countenance to the *Plutonic* system. These whynn dykes, composed of horizontal basaltic prisms, are usually about twelve feet wide, in some places resembling a quay; they may be compared to the basalt septs which frequently divide the strata in mines, and are generally attended by a sinking or subsidence of the strata on one side of them, without disturbing the parallelism of these strata. The position and direction of the dykes are described, and some judicious remarks are made on the use to which these basaltic phænomena have been applied by geologists. Dr. R. gives several reasons for thinking that the substance, which forms the giant's causeway and the whynn dykes, was never in a state of ignition; to which he adds one that he deems conclusive: 'All the substances, when ignited, are in an high state of dilatation; this is followed, when they cool, by a contraction, *une retraite*, by which they occupy less space than they did when heated; of course had our Dykes been chasms filled up with glowing lava, when this material cooled and contracted, it could no longer fill up these chasms as before; but must crack and separate from their sides, leaving intervals and disruptions; but nothing like this is observed, the Dyke and contiguous matter, whatever it be, are solidly united together, forming but one mass.'—The gentlemen, whose opinions are combated in this paper, will attend to the *facts* here adduced, which are designed by Dr. R. to discountenance the formation of crude geological theories: but, while he rejects the igneous origin of the whynn dykes, and the use which has been made of this hypothesis, why would he hint at the idea of a theory himself, and speak of these dykes as being possibly the *framework* or *skeleton* of our globe?—Three plates are given to elucidate the subject of this letter, and that of a subsequent dissertation. (See p. 183.)

An Essay on Credulity. *By* William Preston *Esq.*—This dissertation is both theoretical and practical; the ingenious author having endeavoured to advance the philosophy of mind, and to assist us in the management of one of its most powerful principles; and he flatters himself that, by making *Credulity* an object of scientific investigation, he may have rendered some service to his fellow-creatures. Credulity is here stated to be an innate principle, distinct from rational belief; to be an universal

versal propensity of unsophisticated unadulterated man; 'to be an emotion of *feeling* rather than an operation of intellect.' We have no objection to distinguish with Mr. P. between the rational, the inductive, and the comparative ground of assent to a proposition, which we agree to term *Faith*, and the vulgar and implicit principle of belief, which we call *Credulity*: but we cannot admit that either of these species of credence is an emotion of feeling. Whether faith be popular and instantaneous, or the result of protracted investigation, it is equally an act of the intellect; and, before experience has taught the necessity of doubt and suspicion, every report or representation which comes in the semblance of truth is received as truth. Credulity may rather be considered as a hasty kind of faith, to which men in a gregarious state are often impelled by passions and feelings which are communicated by a sort of electric spark, and which impel the mind to an almost instantaneous decision. This explanation, we think, is preferable to that of Mr. P.; whose doctrine is, that 'Credulity is an emotion or feeling, which operates instantaneously and without reserve, admitting neither deliberation nor degree;' whereas, in our judgment, Credulity is only the principle of faith indiscreetly exercised; a principle not differing from the latter in kind, but more in the circumstances in which it acts. It is, however, of little moment in the practical view of this interesting subject, whether the theory be or be not established; since the most valuable part of the essay, containing observations on the operation, use, and abuse of it, remains the same, whether Credulity be regarded as a feeling, or as a rapid and unchastised decision of the mind. The grounds for dissenting from popular rumours are here judiciously appreciated; and Mr. Preston's reflections on the conduct which ought to be pursued, in order to guard against popular delusion, are so sensible, that we shall transcribe them:

'When popular rumour spreads abroad, it should be our care, to trace each report to the fountain head, if we soberly and sincerely wish to be furnished with such data, as may enable us to form a sound and solid judgment, respecting the degree of credit to which it is entitled. Thus shall we be enabled to discover and estimate the character of the reporter. Thus we may discern the passions, prejudices, views of things, the temper of mind, whether sanguine and credulous, or distrustful, and the connexions, by which he is swayed, and actuated; and learn to appreciate his motives. If the rumour is calculated to advance the interests, or promote the views of the reporter, it is more than probable that he is a deceiver. If the event reported is such as conspires with his hopes and wishes, it is likely that he is deceived.

'There is an obvious ground, for cautious diffidence and distrust, when we perceive, that the individuals or the party, from whom a

popular report or rumour is found to proceed, have a manifest interest, which may be served, a palpable object, which may be promoted, by its circulation, and free reception; as if, for instance, a rumour emanating from a ruling party in a state, should be calculated to throw a lustre of popularity on their measures, and to maintain them in power; we must believe with caution.—If a report, flowing from a party in opposition to those who govern, should tend to make the measures of government odious and contemptible, and to shake those who administer it, from their seats, that they may make room for their opponents; we must believe with caution. Contending sects of religion are usually animated with great mutual hostility and rancour, and employ no small share of industry and malice, in traducing and vilifying each other.—When we find reports ushered into circulation, under the auspices of religious contest, and acrimonious bigotry, we must assent with caution. When a story, tending to place an individual in a ridiculous or odious light, proceeds from his rival, or his enemy; or when, on the other hand, a report calculated to advance his fame and fortunes, or to exalt his character, is circulated by his friends, his dependants, his near connexions, or the party or faction to which he has devoted himself; in such cases, we must assent with caution.'—

'It is a safe and prudent rule, to conclude, that where uncommon heat and zeal are employed, in the propagation of a report, and are accompanied with an impatience of contradiction, and a resistance to all free disquisitions, such circumstances are an indication of a fabricated tale, which will not bear the test of rigid enquiry. And we must be still more confirmed in this persuasion, when we find a tendency to revile and depreciate those, who would enter into any discussion of the probability of the story, or the merits of the reporters. Surely, with impartial men and lovers of truth, such a conduct must be sufficient cause of doubt. The language of truth is calm and moderate; it rests its success on its own intrinsic merit; it does not seek to prepossess or intimidate the hearer; the spirit of truth does not proscribe and anathematize examination.'

The concluding section undertakes to explain 'How the abuse of popular Credulity may be remedied or prevented.' In this moral prescription, Mr. Preston recommends none of the imbecility of political quackery. He cautions statesmen against miserable attempts to govern a people by restraining the circulation of intelligence, and by favouring darkness and concealment; and he advises them to apply the only real antidote to the epidemic malady which he has so fully described:

'To counteract what is inherent in human nature must, as I have said, appear even in theory, a visionary attempt, and has been proved such by repeated experience. The growth of the evil may be checked; the consequences of it may be rendered less fatal; but the means, I fear, will seem *Utopian* to the generality of mankind. What are they? the promoting of a free circulation of opinion, an encrease of rational lights, the diffusion of knowledge, the facilitating and giving

publicity

publicity to the statement of important facts, in which the people are interested, by means of which, freedom of speech, and of the press, ought to be maintained. The approaches to public instruction should be facilitated, judicious systems of public education should be adopted An enlightened and well educated people will doubt, will enquire, will think for themselves; while a rude, ignorant, and miserable peasantry, discontented with their present state, their understandings clouded by barbarism, and warped by their wishes and their fears, will eagerly catch at every report or suggestion that flatters the hope of change; of change which must naturally be ever welcome to the miserable.'

In this passage, the author adverts to the state of Ireland, and we should rejoice to hear that his sage advice was pursued in ameliorating this part of the empire.

Essay on the Natural-Advantages of Ireland, the Manufactures to which they are adapted, and the best Means of improving those Manufactures. By the same.—This detailed enumeration of the advantages of Ireland, and of the means most likely to improve that country, was originally presented in the year 1796 as a prize essay, and obtained the proposed reward. It is of great extent, occupying upwards of 250 closely printed quarto pages; and Mr. P. informs us that this extraordinary length precluded it, at the time of its first reading, from a place in the Irish Transactions: but that, in consequence of a new mode of typographical arrangement adopted by the Society, by which a double quantity of matter is comprized in a page, he has now been induced to solicit and able to obtain its insertion. In point of the importance of the subject, and the very able manner in which it is discussed, the paper is well intitled to the place which has been assigned to it: but as it is of a popular nature, and requires to be submitted to the public in general, it demands a larger circulation than it is likely to receive by being included in the memoirs of a Philosophical and Literary Society.

Since the year 1796, most important events have occurred, very essentially affecting the intrinsic and relative situation of Ireland. Mr. Preston therefore, we think, should have availed himself of the delay in the publication of his essay, by making such alterations and additions as would have accommodated it to existing circumstances; and not have contented himself with merely stating in the preface that 'some of the positions may not appear to be so strictly just, and some of the topics not altogether so apposite,' as they would have done had they been offered to the public before the great and stupendous events, to which he alludes, took place. In a revision of this production, considerable retrenchments might have been effected, without injuring its essential qualities. Indeed, we are persuaded that,

as a popular work, it requires to be much abbreviated. As a statistical and patriotic writer, Mr. Preston's merit stands high; and our commendation of his knowlege and talents is not meant to be diminished by the wish which we have expressed, respecting the compression of his materials and advice for common information and use.

This essay is divided into two books, which are again separated into chapters and sections. In the first book, Mr. P. exhibits not only the natural advantages of Ireland generally and particularly, but enumerates also certain disadvantages under which she labours; and he subjoins a detailed account of the manufactures, to which the circumstances of the country might be supposed to lead her inhabitants. In the second book, he distinctly considers several methods and schemes for the promotion and encouragement of industry, and offers brief notices respecting the encouragement of specific manufactures.

Our confined limits prohibit us from minutely following the author through all the subdivisions of this paper: but we shall endeavour to state enough of its contents to enable our readers to judge of its nature, spirit, and tendency. He observes that Ireland includes in herself the means of great prosperity; that her population is greatly increased; (he adds, which does not appear to be a fact, 'while the population of England is decreasing;') that her tillage has been doubled within the last thirty years; and that she possesses, in the salubrity of her climate, in the fertility of her soil, in her numerous rivers, in her extensive sea-coasts, and in her various mineral productions, an ample store of natural wealth and resources. He invites his countrymen to a consideration of these circumstances, under the conviction that disquisitions of this kind 'are to the public, what habits of self-examination are to the individual; they turn the political, like the mental eye, inward, they rouse from the trance of apathy, they impress a knowlege of secret faults and weaknesses, and frequently suggest the means of reformation.' How much is here attempted by this patriotic writer, to awaken the public conscience of the Irish to perform its office! Just to himself and his subject, he does not omit to specify the natural *dis*advantages of Ireland,—which consist in a predominance of moisture in the climate, and in a deficiency of wood and fuel,—and to caution her against those manufactures, in the prosecution of which a great abundance of fuel is requisite. It is stated, as a general principle, that 'such manufactures as have the greatest tendency to promote agriculture have (*cæteris paribus*) the fairest claim to encouragement;' and the linen manufactory in the first degree, and the woollen in the second, are proved to possess this property. The author deems

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it of great importance that the *primum* of the manufacture is of home growth, and 'of the most excellent quality.' 'In whatever point of view we consider Ireland, it will appear that nature, her habits of industry, her peculiar circumstances, her political relations, all concur in pointing out the linen manufacture, as the prime object of her exertions.—From the very moment of the [*flax*] seed being first put into the ground, to the time of its being exhibited in the market, in the form of a piece of white linen, every thing is the native growth of the soil, every thing the productive labour of the inhabitants.' The manufactures of cotton, silk, and hardware, Mr. P. does not recommend to his countrymen; for the two former, they want capital; and as to that part of the latter which includes polished steel, it is asked 'Has not Nature herself imposed insuperable obstacles to our progress in this department, by the extraordinary humidity of the climate; and as to the hardware manufactory in general, the want of fuel precludes Ireland from entering into competition with England.' To the making of paper, however, as connected with the linen manufacure, Mr. P. calls the attention of his countrymen.

When the author adverts to the encouragement which ought to be extended to the manufactures of Ireland, he endeavours to draw the attention of his readers to the operation of moral as well as of physical causes; he enumerates the extensive application of philosophy and science to the various processes of productive industry; and, that the people may be in possession of the knowlege of the several mineral productions of the soil, he recommends it to government to employ able mineralogists to frame 'something like a subterranean chart of the whole island.' Particularly he urges that every encouragement should be given to the husbandman and the shepherd, by whom an abundance, both of provision and of the raw material, is produced for the use of the manufacturer; and, to promote the cultivation of waste and mountainous parts, he proposes that they should be colonized, and rendered accessible by good roads. To this advice he subjoins reproof. He represents 'idleness and drunkenness as the native growth of the soil, and prodigality and ruin as the order of the day among traders and manufacturers.' 'Prodigality,' we are informed, 'is the prevailing disposition of the people of Ireland: and there are few countries, of the same size and population, where so many idlers are fed with the bread of the industrious.' Such a country is indeed politically sick and distempered; and as it is difficult to "administer to minds diseased," or to rectify habits of general immorality, we survey with concern some of his pictures of the Irish people.

'What does the merchant or shop-keeper?—He commences business, with, perhaps, two thousand pounds, which (such is the scarcity of money in this country,) is considered as a handsome capital. The whole, or most part, of this capital he expends, on the fine of a large house, and on furniture. His stock in trade, he obtains on credit. He keeps a pair of hunters, and a harlot. He indulges himself in all the pleasures of the table. He frequents the gaming house. In short, he lives in the style of a man, who had already acquired an ample fortune. He flatters himself, that, by frequent entertainments, and conviviality, he shall acquire friends, and form useful connexions. —His credit totters,—he gets a wife, with some money; this wards off the evil day, for a season, only to return with greater certainty; for the wife is not less extravagant than the husband.—The man becomes a bankrupt; pays two and sixpence in the pound; and is happy, if he can become a tide waiter, a gauger, a hearth money collector, or an ensign of militia. He dies, and leaves a race of idle, uneducated beggars, to burthen the community. Such is the history of many a merchant, and master manufacturer, in *Ireland*.

'Squires, without estates; merchants and tradesmen, without capital; artisans, without morals, or industry, are vermin, more noxious than any that *St. Patrick* is fabled to have expelled from *Ireland*.'

If Ireland be desirous of succeeding in commercial and manufacturing undertakings, she must acquire the character of moderation and frugality. With this view, the author prescribes the removal of manufactures from the capital, and enters at large into the subject of moral and public instruction. It shews a degree of public virtue to adopt, with spirit, plans for promoting it; and as this writer informs us that some progress has been made in a work of this nature, since his essay was written, we will not despair of our sister island: hoping that the education of the rising generation among the lower classes will not be neglected, and that the sensible hints here offered, on the means of carrying it into effect, will not pass unregarded. Mr. P. treats also on the topics of regulation and controul of charitable loans, of bounties, and protecting duties: but we must pass over the sections in which they are discussed. He protests against establishments by government for the prosecucution of trade and manufactures, against corporations, and against fixing a maximum in the price of labour; and while he laments that the pay of the labourer in Ireland is generally too low, he advises government not to interfere in the regulation of it, but to leave it to find its own level. Workhouses and foundations of this kind are not regarded as wise provisions for the poor; and Mr. Preston's sentiments on this subject so entirely accord with our own, that we shall indulge ourselves with copying one short passage:

'What a number of proud, luxurious, opulent servants of mendicity and misery, these establishments maintain in state, lodge in palaces, and train

train about in equipages! Cast your eyes on the buildings erected for almost any public purpose, you will see what a large portion, and that the most splendid and best part of the edifice, is occupied by the officers of the public, or the servants of the institution!—A laundress—a steward—a providore—a matron of an hospital, or a poorhouse, is often lodged in apartments, that might serve a prince, and enabled (out of the funds intended for the lame, the blind, the aged, and the orphan) to run the whole career of fashionable dissipation, on an income adequate to the maintenance of an hundred paupers, or a dozen professors of elegant accomplishments, or useful knowledge.'

Benefit or *friendly societies* afford a mode of providing for the wants of the poor, without the glare of parade and wasteful ostentation.

Passing from general questions affecting trade and national prosperity, Mr. P. resumes the examination of the linen, woollen, cotton, and paper manufactures, in reference to Ireland; and he proposes various hints for their encouragement, more especially for the linen manufactory, which is the great staple of the country. As a man of letters, however, he is solicitous not merely that Ireland should be provided with the *prima* of scribbling, but that literary property should be secured in this part of the empire; which, we congratulate the author, has been accomplished by a law passed in the Imperial Parliament.

In conclusion, Mr. P. recapitulates the prominent doctrines of his essay; and, as Ireland labours under a want of fuel, he earnestly advises that the bowels of the earth should be every where explored in search of coal.—Several minor topics of observation in this paper we have been obliged to overlook.

Inquiry into the Consistency of Dr. Hutton's Theory of the Earth, with the Arrangement of the Strata, and other Phænomena on the Basaltic Coast of Antrim. By the Rev. William Richardson, *D. D.*—Geological theorists are fair game for philosophers; and, as speculation and bold conjecture must have a large share in the formation of their systems, they must necessarily be liable to a variety of objections. Man, with all his exertions, can penetrate so inconsiderable a way into the bosom of the earth which he inhabits, that the secrets of its formation must ever perhaps remain a mystery: but from the few facts which he collects on its surface, he will presume to reason, and often from local evidence will deduce general principles. It is easier to combat such theories than to establish them. Like an orthodox divine, Dr. Richardson opposes some recent attempts to shake the Mosaic account of the age of the world; and he particularly applies the observations which he has collected on the basaltic coast of Antrim, to subvert the basis of Dr. Hutton's anti-scriptural

tural theory, which consists of the following propositions: 1st, that strata are continually depositing in layers, horizontal, or nearly so, in the unfathomable regions of the ocean; 2. that these strata are there consolidated by subaqueous heat and fusion; 3. that, being thus consolidated, they are afterward elevated by the expansive force of heat, and in this operation are broken, dislocated, and distorted. The present writer argues against these positions: but the philosopher will perceive that he reasons against general principles from partial premises, and in a way as objectionable as the very theory which he endeavours to subvert. We shall not examine how far he is justified in his assertion respecting the permanency of the materials of the globe, and the depositions of rivers being composed entirely of vegetable matter, but shall proceed to the fact which he produces against Dr. Hutton's 1st proposition. After having remarked that the coat of matter formed at the bottom of the sea must be homogeneous, since the detritus from different parts must be nearly the same, he observes;

'By examining accumulations of strata in a vertical direction, we find the impossibility of their having been formed as Dr. *Hutton* supposes; for whether by their nature they approximate to each other, as in the several varieties of basalt; or whether they be totally different, as *sandstone, coal, limestone, basalt*; yet in all cases the transition from one stratum to another, is *per saltum*, and never *per gradus*. The line of demarcation between contiguous strata, similar, or different, is as accurately defined, as if drawn by a pencil.

'It remains for Dr. *Hutton*'s advocates to explain how the powers of nature were exerted, to separate for a time from the heterogeneous mass of far travelled detritus, one distinct species of matter to the exclusion of all others, so as to form a compleat extensive stratum, for instance of limestone, then suddenly to change and collect another totally different, perhaps, sandstone or argil; then as suddenly a third, or very likely to resume the first, as is the case in our alternations which so frequently occur.'

It will be easy for the advocates of the Huttonian theory to reply to this objection. On the second proposition, which supposes the operation of fire at the bottom of the sea, Dr. R. is a facetious, if not a satisfactory reasoner. He smiles at this imaginary subaqueous foundery, and tells us that he thinks the 'kindling fires at the bottom of the sea, and fusing all substances to be found there, are *operations unnatural to the place*.' Yet without admitting the existence of submarine fires, how can we account for many islands which have evidently been formed in the ocean? The fresh water found in the cavities of masses of basalt, Dr. R. considers as evidence against their igneous fusion; and he regards the whynn dykes, which were

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the subject of a former paper, (See p. 175.) as adverse to a part of the hypothesis.

In answer to the third proposition, Dr. R. says, that 'the face of nature *in his country* gives it the most direct and positive contradiction,' where the vertical strata are perpendicular and parallel to each other, and do not appear to have been placed in that position by fire acting from beneath.

'If (it is added) Dr. H. makes the *whynn dykes* posterior to the explosion, and formed by fluid lava, injected upwards through the fissures formed by the disruption of the strata; how can we conceive such steady perpendicularity in chasms formed in the midst of a scene of such confusion, and disorder, as he himself describes? and how comes it that his lava (which must have been in an high state of fluidity, to admit its passage through such narrow crevices) stops in every single instance when it reaches the surface, without spreading along it when its confinement was at an end?'

The force of this passage is nearly destroyed by the remark which follows, that 'there are in other countries, instances of columns deviating considerably from their perpendicularity; and that the strata over the world is not so steady as in *our* basaltic country.' Indeed this admission seems to be fatal to the objection, considered as a general one, which it must be when employed against so comprehensive a theory; for as the operation of subterraneous fire, by elevating the superincumbent mass, must throw its component strata in all directions and positions, it does not invalidate the principle of its supposed operation, that strata are found in some districts perpendicular and parallel to each other.—We have no desire, however, to become parties in this controversy. Let us collect *facts* with patience, and abstain from the precipitate construction of general theories.

Polite Literature.

Essay on the Rise and Progress of Rhime. *By* Theophilus Swift, *Esq.* *To which was adjudged the Gold Prize Medal, proposed by the Royal Irish Academy, for the best Essay on that Subject.*—Writers who pursue a subject with enthusiasm strive to invest it with every possible honour; and Mr. Swift is an instance in point. Having devoted much time and employed much erudition in tracing the history of rhime, he assigns to it the highest antiquity; being as thoroughly persuaded of its existence in the *sacred and most antient language* of the Hebrews, as in the verses of Dryden; though he allows that it is not *always* possible to trace or to fix it. To this remark, however, it may be replied that rhimes, which it is not possible to trace or to fix, so nearly resemble non-entities, that their evidence is not worth regarding. Had rhime been a principle in the construction

struction of Hebrew poetry, it would have been easily detected in the poetical parts of the Bible; and the parallelisms would have afforded Mr. Swift unquestionable examples, which would have been preferable to a host of conjectures, surmises, and learned arguments. That there will be a sort of gingle, assonance, or echo of sounds in all languages, is a fact which will be taken for granted; so that readers will perhaps subscribe to Mr. Swift's leading doctrine, that 'rhime has its origin in no exclusive language;' though they might not infer, from the detection of occasional ginglings in any antient language, that it was an essential principle of its poetry. Not contented with the display of much learning, Mr. Swift endeavours to aid it, occasionally, with affected and pompous diction. If he had only remarked that 'from the lisp of the infant, to the lyre of the bard, the rhime has been a note in the voice of man,' we should not have accused him of "over-stepping the modesty of nature:" but he is surely bombastic, when he tells us that

'Rhime, in its origin, resembled the bold sweep of the mountain, or the simple majesty of the forest; though, now, by the caprice or fastidiousness of its possessors, it hath often dwindled into the clipt hedge and the trim parterre. But this destroys not the grandeur and dignity and echo of the patriarchal forest, whose oaks, while they shade us and cover us with their venerable arms, serve as an asylum from the obtrusions of impertinence.'

Mr. S. takes pains to shew that the earliest Orientals rhimed their poetry, as well as the Egyptians; by whom he supposes Greece to have been colonized. How did it happen, then, that the Greeks marked their poetry by quantity and feet, and abstruded the rhime? The following is the solution:

'It is not improbable, that this vain and aspiring people might endeavour to form a tongue, that should differ in all respects from the Orientals, as well in the complex order of its phrase, and their manner of writing, as in the total exclusion of the *rhime:* as if they scorned to be indebted even for a *winged word* to any nation but their own.'

Steady, however, to his text of the universal prevalence of rhime, he will not entirely renounce the Greeks, but adds 'I am still inclined to think that the first Græcians, whether Cadmæi, Cecropii, or Danai, rhimed their poetry.' Yet he is ingenuous enough to acknowlege subsequently, that, after a laborious search into the fragments and detached sentences of the Greeks, which Athenæus, Tzetzes, old scholiasts, and others have collected, he has 'not been able to lay his finger on an *antient* rhime of the Greeks.' When Mr. S. enters on ages posterior to the commencement of the Christian æra, he is more successful; and now is the time for exultation:

'Despicably then as some may judge of *rhime*, these *Rhimers* and *Merry Men all* will be found the real fathers of chivalry and crusade,

that

that were nursed in their songs, and impassioned the age with that romantic love of glory, which still gives a complexion to the politics and manners of Europe!'

Enlisted on the side of rhime, Mr. S. cannot be supposed to bestow much commendation on *prose mesurée*, or blank verse: even to Milton, he cannot be civil:

'When I read Milton, I do not feel at ease, for I am not reading my native tongue: it is Greek, it is Latin, it is both, it is all three, Greek, Latin and English heaped together, like the mountains of his own devils.'

From a line in Ovid, which in our opinion can bear no such construction (see p. 41 of the Essay), the author infers that the Roman poet, when among the Getæ, composed Latin verse with the Getic rhime; and he pompously concludes his Essay with pronouncing rhime, THE UNIVERSAL VOICE OF NATIONS.

Notices relative to some of the Native Tribes of North America. By John Dunne, *Esq.*—In this paper, some curious specimens are exhibited, both of the language and of the inventive genius of the North American Indians. The apologues which Mr. Dunne relates are curious and remarkable instances of mental ingenuity, and prove that they have adopted the same method of inculcating moral and prudential maxims that was practised by civilized nations. The Indians have a fable, which shews that they have their Circe as well as the Greeks; and which Mr. Dunne has related in the Latin language, on account of its indelicacy.

Some Considerations on the History of antient amatory Writers, and the comparative Merits of the three great Roman Elegiac Poets, OVID, TIBULLUS, *and* PROPERTIUS. *By* William Preston, *Esq.*—The sentiment advanced by the late amiable and learned Sir William Jones, that amatory poetry is one of the first productions of the human intellect, is here controverted by Mr. Preston; who is of opinion that 'where savage manners prevail, love can have no place as a permanent emotion.' This hypothesis he attempts to support by an appeal to the poets of those ages which are termed *heroic*. He reminds us that love is sparingly introduced into the poems of Homer; and that, in the remains of Sophocles, no single play is to be found which turns on the passion of love. It is also contended that elegance and luxury must prevail before love engrosses a large share in the interests of society, and becomes an object of poetical description. Ovid, Tibullus, and Propertius, flourished in a period which was favourable to amatory compositions; and the respective merits of these writers are here appreciated with judgment and taste. Their poetical talents are contrasted at some length: but, instead of attending the commentator in his details, we must

must avail ourselves of a single sentence, into which the substance of the essay is compressed:

'*Ovid* surpasses his rivals and contemporaries, in fancy, gaiety, ingenuity, and wit; *Tibullus*, in nature, pathos, real tenderness, sweetness, ease and unaffected simplicity; *Propertius* excels, in sublimity, loftiness of manner, dignity and refinement of sentiment, purity of passion, and learning, in which last respect, he sometimes however, runs riot, and may justly incur the censure of pedantry.'

ANTIQUITIES.

The only paper in this class is intitled, *An Inscription on an antient Sepulchral Stone or Monument in the Church-yard of Killcummin, near Killala, in the County of Mayo; with some Remarks on the same. By the Rev.* James Little.—The date of this epitaph, of which a *fac simile* is given, is here supposed to be 1102, or 1105 of the Christian æra; and Mr. Little infers from the letters and figures engraven on it, that arts and learning were diffused among the Irish at that early period. We shall not call in question either the writer's sagacity or his imagination.

This volume is very incorrectly printed. Though it contains a long list of errata, many occur which are not specified.

from p. 175. Mo-y.

ART. VII. *Almahide and Hamet*, a Tragedy. By Benjamin Heath Malkin, Esq. M.A. 8vo. pp. 158. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THIS tragedy is preceded by a long introductory dissertation, in the form of an epistle to Mr. Kemble, of Covent Garden Theatre; in which Mr. Malkin has attempted a detailed history of the English drama, with short critical notices on the merits of the several writers who have contributed to enrich it. In this wide field of remark, he has suggested abundant proofs of a cultivated and discriminating mind; though the soundness of some of his observations will probably be questioned, especially those which plead in favour of our still retaining on the stage the licentious productions of "either Charles's days." Let wit and pleasantry keep possession of our boards, but they can lose nothing by being purified from coarseness, indelicacy, and ribaldry. Good sense and a regard to public morals will operate, it is to be hoped, on authors and managers who provide for and superintend the drama: but if they should fail in their duty, we should not be willing, with Mr. Malkin, to leave the rectification of the evil *solely* to the operation of 'public taste.' 'Our audiences,' he tells us, 'do all that can be expected from them, or that the necessity of the case demands, in guarding the morality of the stage: for while they admit *established* freedoms, they sternly prohibit their renewal in those productions, for

for the admission of which they will have to answer to posterity.' That is to say, modern audiences will tolerate grossness and impiety in an old play, but not in a modern one; and will allow immorality to keep possession of the stage in some cases, by a sort of prescriptive right, though they deny it that privilege in others. We should consider this circumstance attending theatrical exhibitions, not as a proof that public taste was correct, but only that it was improving, and ought farther to be improved.

Mr. Malkin exults in the thought that English dramatic literature has 'weathered the storm of German taste,' and hopes 'that the escape may be hailed as an omen that the vessel is sea-worthy and will live.' For the purpose of remedying the acknowleged dearth of tragic subjects, he has here attempted an experiment, 'how far it might be allowable to retrieve some of the topics which are now forgotten, except by the scholar.' Finding that several of the most dramatic incidents in the page of history have been occupied by heroic plays in rhyme, it occurred to him that good service might be rendered to the stage by re-writing some of those forgotten pieces; and by way of trial he has here undertaken to new-model, and to construct in blank verse, Dryden's rhyming tragedy on "The Conquest of Granada." The rules which he has prescribed to himself are judicious; and as they may be of use to others who might engage in similar undertakings, we shall transcribe them:

'The fall of a powerful and long-established empire must in almost all cases be a fit basis for tragedy; and that Dryden had determined the Conquest of Granada to be so, seemed rather a confirmation and incentive, than an argument for declining the attempt. It had with me this additional recommendation; that the distance of time and place, and the little certainty of any event attending it, except that the kingdom did actually fall, afforded a latitude for the insertion or alteration of incidents, which the precedent and authority of Dryden justified; a species of dramatic ductility, denied to the stubborn facts of more authentic history. But as this liberty is by consent of all to be very scrupulously indulged, and is altogether forbidden by some critics, I shall trouble you with my own principles on the subject, in vindication of my practice. I conceive that any period of history, clearly made out and copiously filled up, can only be rendered subservient to dramatic purposes, in strict conformity with the evidence on which it rests. The consequence is, that very few tragedies, drawn from such periods, have avoided the difficult alternative of dramatic unfitness or historical deviation from truth. It requires the dexterity of Shakespeare to represent Henry the Eighth, as he really was, without offending Queen Elizabeth. Modern domestic history therefore is almost excluded from the stage, as not admitting those licences, necessary to the ends of interest and poetical justice. Nor is the violation

violation of this severe rule less criminal, in adapting remote events to the uses of the drama, if any existing political relations are founded on those events. I will illustrate this distinction by an example. Were I to write a tragedy on the legend of king Arthur, I should feel nearly as unrestrained, as if I had adopted a name unknown to the historic page. I should create knights for him to encounter, build castles for him to demolish, enslave damsels for him to rescue, and weave charms for him to disenchant. But were I to select the annals of king Alfred, from whose ordinances some of our surviving institutions are known to have been derived, though much is left to uncertainty, much consigned to oblivion in that distant era, I should think it necessary to investigate my incidents, before I adopted them, with the accuracy of a chronicler, and the patience of an antiquary. There is likewise a distinction, with respect to stories and traditions unconnected with present times, and nearly lost in the confusion of obsolete records. In this case, we may falsify the current tale, but not its moral spirit and tendency. If I am told by the historian, and am told no more, that Solyman was a good sultan, and Mustapha a bad vizier, I may fairly invent what circumstances I please, to illustrate Solyman's benevolence, or weave an arbitrary tissue of criminality for the developement of Mustapha's craft or avarice; but I am not at liberty to reverse the historic sketch, however defective, and to represent Solyman as a tyranical king, and Mustapha as a wise and politic minister. By these rules, I wish, without demanding, my aberrations from the path of received belief to be tried.'

Dryden's deviations from the story in the conduct of his plot are particularly specified; after which, Mr. M. notices the kind of liberty which he has taken in this new manufacture:

'The king in Dryden's play is made to fall in battle, and the queen to turn Christian, and marry Almanzor, instead of retiring into solitude. Almanzor is a personage of his own, seemingly compounded of Hamet and the Christian champion. If Dryden might indulge these liberties, professing to write an historical play on the conquest of Granada, I hope I am justified in introducing less flagrant violations of fact; particularly as the fall of Granada is not my subject, but only the vehicle to convey a lesson on the miseries of faction, and to exhibit the conflict between duty and passion, and the consequences of the latter in virtuous minds. For this reason, I have thought myself intitled to deviate, both from the poet and the historian, in determining the fate, though I have endeavoured to adhere to the character, of the queen: I have closed the play when the moral end was answered, without degrading the king by carrying the story down to the last battle and capitulation. I have retained the historical character of Hamet, which Dryden has sunk in the hero of his own invention; but it has been my object to invest him with the qualities of a rational Almanzor, and in general to paint chivalry nearer the probable complexion of its natural features, than it has been represented in the over-charged delineations of romance.'

In the composition of the dialogue, Mr. M. does not strut in the *sesquipedalia verba* of pompous tragedy. He informs us that after

after some short trial, he did not find the writing of blank verse so irksome to him as he expected. This was a pleasant discovery: but his judgment should have apprized him that what is performed with too much ease is rarely executed well. Many of his lines are tame, monosyllabic, and prosaic, while some run into Alexandrines: *e. g.*

'On our own parricidal turbulence'—
'Be what a woman should be, and be happy.'—
'But flesh and blood *is* weak, and woman frail.'—
'In these thy pious prayers, I fervent join.'—
'Can Musa counsel any thing that's honest?'—
'Be not thou negligent of their concerns.'—
'I'll thank you for your leave to lay it down.'—

These are lines, indeed, which must have been written without much difficulty; and if they should pass for blank verse, it may be remarked of it and prose, that "thin partitions do their bounds divide." Some of the passages have an obvious transmarine allusion: Hamet says in one place,

'————————I resign all claims
But what a people's voice or birth-right gives me;
No usurpation founded on expedience,
The subtle plea of villains, who engraft
On transient service, lasting tyranny,
Can stamp heaven's signet on a deed of shame.
I might have flatter'd and cajol'd my comrades,
Have brib'd the soldiery, to toss their caps,
And cry for justice, Hamet and reform!
Not so a realm beset by foes shall stand;
Not so should aged honours crown this brow.
The momentary tide of fame would ebb,
And raze my memory from the printless sand.'

In another;

'Had I been born a king, not fate itself
Should from my grasp have wrested right inherent:
But little boots it to a private man,
That opportunity invites his hand
To seize a splendid theft! The gilded court
Makes not the glory of the monarch's crown,
But lawful title and paternal care.
Then soar above the reach of Musa's aims;
Abandon lawless love, wash off ambition's stain;
Be Lyndaraxa, and assert yourself.
What is it to be first, if first in guilt?'

Abdalla, whose mind had been poisoned against the faithful Hamet, thus reproaches him;

'Am I a king, and bear this proud rebuke?
The man, who dares affront his prince, relies

On

On rebels thickly rank'd to back his crimes!
The mutiny thou hold'st so light, was born
Of thy suggestion, traitor! 'Twas thy plot
T'usurp the throne, and make the times thy plea.
Yes! For thyself thou conquer'dst, not for fame!
To turn the sorrows of a falling race
To thine advantage, seize their empty seat,
Perpetuate th' abuses thou condemn'st
As theirs, in deeds of thine own tyranny,
And clothe thee, *upstart islander*, in purple
Won from its lawful wearers by base theft.'

The moral of the piece is given in the four concluding lines:

'By this example let mankind be taught,
Divided love, though guiltless, ends in woe.
Granada's realm might stand to distant times,
But for our fond, mistaken, selfish feuds.'

The unities are preserved in this drama, but this circumstance would be no recommendation to the stage. The dialogues are also too long, and we are of opinion that the play reads better than it would act.

Moy.

ART. VIII. *An Enquiry into the Necessity, Nature, and Evidences of Revealed Religion.* By Thomas Robinson, A.M., Rector of Ruan Minor, Cornwall. 8vo. pp. 303. 6s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

PUBLICATIONS on the subject of Revealed Religion are become so numerous, that it may be deemed a work of supererogation to add to their number: yet those men who devote themselves to the study of Theology, and compare together the writings of their predecessors, which were undertaken either to oppose the attacks of infidels or to assist the faithful in giving "a reason for the hope that is in them," are rarely satisfied with the mode in which the design has been accomplished; and they often apprehend that a fair opportunity is still left to them, for the display of their zeal, learning, and ingenuity. Former treatises, they may observe, are either too elaborate or too superficial; they embrace too wide or are confined within too narrow a field; either too much or too little is conceded to the infidel; or he is treated with too much or too little ceremony. In short, it is thought that the argument might still be managed, in some respect, with superior advantage; and that the state of the Christian world warrants the trial.

Particular writers in defence of Revelation usually limit themselves to a definite province; and we rarely find one person

son attempting to elucidate every branch of this very comprehensive subject. Leland and Lardner were both learned and indefatigable, but they took distinct paths. It may be urged, moreover, that the labours of both are above the use of common Christians; and that a demonstration of the reasonableness and expediency of Revelation, with an explanation of the canon of the Scriptures, compressed into a narrow compass, and brought down to the level of ordinary capacities, might form a work for which many would be thankful. Mr. Robinson makes this apology for his present undertaking:

'No publication (he tells us) has reached him in which the necessity, nature, and evidences of Revelation have been presented to the view of the reader at once, and formed into a connected subject of discussion. This he has attempted, by exhibiting, in a plain and popular manner, the incompetency of reason as a religious instructor, by a brief elucidation of the several parts of which Revelation is composed, and by proving the strength and solidity of the grounds on which mankind are expected to accept and believe it to be the Word of God. It has been his object to compress much useful matter into a narrow compass; and to arrange it with that degree of order and distinctness, which will render it intelligible to all capacities. He has laboured to make it of so comprehensive a nature, that whilst sufficient may be found in it, to render it an instructive and explanatory companion to the Bible of the mechanic, it may not be wholly beneath the notice of others, whose education has been more liberal, and attainments more extensive.'

In the execution of the plan which he has projected, Mr. R. has endeavoured to instruct his readers in the outline of the history of the Scriptures, and has familiarly explained many circumstances rarely illustrated, except in learned treatises. Having first stated the necessity and reasonableness of a Revelation from God, on the usual grounds on which this position has been maintained against deistical writers, he next proceeds to an examination of those books which we esteem as containing the will of God, comments on the mode in which the Jews divide the Old Testament, (viz. into the Law, the Prophets, and Hagiographia,) vindicates the authority of the Mosaic history, and offers some remarks on the canon of the Old Testament. In this part, he obviates, by a sensible explanation, many of the objections vauntingly produced by infidels; and we transcribe it as a specimen of the ease with which he performs the office of a theological lecturer:

'The word Canon is originally Greek, and signifies a certain rule or standard by which other things may be measured and determined. As the sacred writers faithfully explain to us the will of God, their works are consequently the rule of faith to those who receive them. But the same word is sometimes made use of as denoting no more than

the list or catalogue in which these divine books are inserted. No positive account of the settlement of the canon of the Old Testament can now be given, because no authors are still extant that professedly treat of this circumstance; but the concurring testimonies of ancient writers, both Jewish and Christian, have ascribed the completion of the work to Ezra*, who, after his return from the Babylonish captivity, undertook the arrangement of the different books, disposed them in order, and settled the canon, to his own times. It is, however, to be remembered, that though the Jewish canon was settled by Ezra, several variations were afterwards made in it. The book of Malachi could not possibly have been inserted by Ezra, because that prophet is allowed to have existed at a later period. Nor could Nehemiah have been placed there by him, as mention is made of Jaddus the high priest, and Darius Codomannus, king of Persia, who were at least a hundred years after Ezra. It may also be added, that the genealogy is carried down in the books of Chronicles, through so many generations as must necessarily bring them to the times of Alexander the Great; consequently these books, also, could not have been inserted in the general arrangement. It is, therefore, highly probable, that the two books of Chronicles, Ezra, Nehemiah, Esther, and Malachi, were afterwards added by Simon the Just†; and that it was not till then that the Jewish canon of the Holy Scriptures was fully completed. But Ezra, it appears, was by no means satisfied to make a mere collection of the books of Scripture, but was anxious to correct, by a careful camparison of the several copies, the numerous errors of the different transcribers. He altered the names of several places that were then grown obsolete, and inserted others better known to the people. Thus Abraham is said to have pursued the kings that carried away Lot as far as Dan; whereas that country, in the time of Moses, was called Laish; the posterity of Dan having never possessed it, till a long period after the death of Moses. In several places in Genesis and Numbers, we find the name of Hebron; whereas that city was called Kiriath Arba, till Caleb gave it the name of Hebron, after one of his sons. It is evident, therefore, that this must have been inserted at some subsequent period; and it probably was at this general review of the original text. Ezra, it is probable, not only altered, but added, when necessary, to the sacred writings. This he did for the better illustration and connexion of the whole; and there can be no doubt, but that he was guided and enlightened by the same Spirit, which had before assisted the original writers. Amongst such additions must be reckoned the last chapter of Deuteronomy; in

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'* The Jews look upon Ezra as another Moses, and call him the second founder of the law. It is a common saying with them, that if Moses had not promulgated the law, Ezra was worthy of being the publisher of it.'

'† Simon the Just was the last of the great synagogue, which consisted of 120 elders. These Jews, after their return from captivity, were incessantly occupied in restoring their former church and state; and, amongst their other labours, collected and published the sacred writings.'

which Moses appears to have given a description of his own death, and the succession of Joshua to the command of the Israelites. It is remarked on Abraham's coming into the land of Canaan, "that the Canaanites were *then* in the land;" an observation not likely to have been made till after the times of Moses; when the Canaanites, having been extirpated by Joshua, were then no longer in the land. In the 14th verse of the 22d chapter of Genesis, it is said, "to this day in the mount of the Lord it shall be seen." But mount Moriah, the mount here spoken of, was not called the mount of the Lord, till the Temple was built on it many hundred years after. In the 36th of Genesis, the kings are reckoned up "who reigned in the land of Edom, before there reigned any king over the land of Israel." This, of course, could not have been said till after there had really been a king in Israel, and therefore these could not possibly have been the words of Moses. In the 25th chapter of the book of Proverbs, universally allowed to have been the work of Solomon, it is said, "these are the proverbs of Solomon, which the men of Hezekiah, king of Judah, copied out." This must have been added many ages afterwards; for Hezekiah was of the twelfth generation from Solomon. Many other insertions might easily be brought forward, of all which Ezra has been supposed to have been the author. These additions, as well as the alterations already alluded to, were made for the purpose of supplying the deficiencies, or explaining the obscurities of the sacred text; and appear never to have been inserted, except when the necessity of the thing demanded it. The books were written out in the Chaldee character, which the people, from the time of the Babylonish captivity, understood much better than the original Hebrew. The sections, which were read in the synagogues on the sabbath, were divided into verses, for the use of the Targumists, or Chaldee interpreters; a portion of the section being first recited in the original Hebrew, and then interpreted in the Chaldee language. Thus was the canon of the Old Testament settled and completed, at a time when the Jewish history was concluded, and the spirit of prophecy wholly withdrawn. As the former race of writers was extinct, and "all vision and prophecy sealed up," no fitter period could be chosen for collecting the different copies, and adjusting the catalogue of the Sacred Writings.

'Such was the origin of that collection, which is now received by us as the Old Testament, and such were the motives that induced the Jews to divide it into different sections and verses in their publick worship. The present division of this sacred book into chapters and verses is, however, with the exception of the Psalms, of much later date, and is thus accounted for. Hugo de Sancto Caro, a Dominican monk, (commonly called Hugo Cardinalis,) who flourished about the year 1240, wrote a commentary on the Old Testament, and in the progress of his work, invented a concordance, the aim of which was to facilitate a reference to any particular word or passage. For this purpose it was necessary to divide the book into sections; and these sections into subdivisions. These sections are our present chapters; but the subdivisions were not marked (like our verses) with different figures; but by capital letters, placed in the margin at equal distances.

In this state the Scriptures continued till the year 1445, when Mordecai Nathan, a Jewish rabbi, drew up a concordance to the Hebrew bible, for the use of the Jews. This writer, though he followed Hugo in dividing the books into separate chapters, rejected the use of capital letters, and took the old method of periods or verses. These verses he distinguished by numbers; a practice found to be of such convenience, that in every subsequent edition of the Scriptures, either in the learned or vulgar languages, it has constantly been adopted. Hence originated the division of the Bible into chapters and verses; and hence it appears, that Jews and Christians have mutually contributed to its present state of utility and convenience.'

A succinct account is next given of the N.T., and of its arrangement and divisions, with short sketches of the lives of the Evangelists and Apostles, and remarks on the canon of the N.T. The credibility of the Gospel history, and the divine inspiration of the sacred writings, are then discussed; and the intrinsic evidence of their divine origin is maintained from the unrivalled excellence of their matter. Hence Mr. R. advances to a consideration of the supernatural character and miraculous powers of the great author of our faith; and of the proof afforded respecting the divinity of his mission by his resurrection, and by his answering to the prophetic character of the Messiah: to which are subjoined the testimonies in favour of Christianity, derived from the circumstances of its subsequent propagation, and from the dispersion and preservation of the Jews. Mr. R. adverts also to the history of the sacred text, in order to assure the reader that it has been transmitted without any material corruption or alteration; and after having recommended that it should be perused with diligence and humility, he thus recapitulates and enforces his argument:

'It appears, then, if the preceding statements be founded on truth, that mankind stood in need of some fuller information on religious subjects, than the light of nature was capable of affording them. It has also been shewn, that some extraordinary interposition of divine power was both wanted and expected. It has also been asserted, that such a revelation has been actually made; not at once, but by gradual advances. When our first parents were called into existence, they not only received every thing from their Creator suited to their happiness, but particular directions for their future conduct. This information they conveyed to their descendants, to be again transmitted to future ages. But when time and experience had shewn the uncertainty of traditional instruction, the divine commands were consigned to writing; in order to be preserved as an invariable and perfect standard of truth. These writings were committed to the charge of a particular nation, to be the guide of their civil and religious conduct, till a better and clearer system should be published: which was not only destined to supersede the former; but to be the parent of knowledge, virtue, and happiness to the whole human race. This was, as it had been promised, pro-

mulgated to the world at the appointed period; and has been proved by experience to possess those extraordinary and supernatural advantages which mankind had been repeatedly taught to hope for; and which their natural ideas of divine goodness would have led them to expect. That this revelation is founded on truth, and of divine origin, has been proved by such strong and accumulated evidence, as no other records of former events have ever received; they have been admitted, after long and deep examination, by the wise and virtuous in all ages; and seem only to require to be weighed in the balance of an unprejudiced mind, to be embraced by every honest enquirer after truth.

'But if these arguments, so conclusive with others, fail of their effect, still one consideration remains for the unbeliever, of the deepest importance. Should he even be in the right, let him seriously ask himself, what he is to gain by it? Nothing in this world, according to the admission of the most celebrated of his brethren; as they have openly confessed, that the precepts of Christianity are most admirably adapted to the happiness and welfare of the present life*. If he has travelled so far on the road of infidelity, as to doubt or disbelieve a state of future existence, he cannot, according to his own principles, have the slightest advantage over the Christian. If man be destined to perish in the grave, the infidel and the Christian will of course be on a level; every thing that they were, and every thing they did in the present life, will be equally immaterial, and alike forgotten. Annihilated in the dust, the repose of both must be endless and unbroken. But, if he admit the immortal nature of the soul; a state of future rewards and punishments; the obligation we are under to love God and man; and to live righteously and soberly in our present stations; all these points are forcibly and repeatedly inculcated by the Gospel. Hence then it must be evident, that the infidel can have no advantage over the Christian. Should the faith of the latter eventually turn out to be an imposture and fable, it is a delusion that has been productive of no evil. It has led to no immoralities; it has sanctioned no crimes; it is, therefore, the most venial and innoxious of all errors. In such a religion, there can be no danger, on any supposition. Were we even to grant, that nothing can be gained by it; it is absolutely certain, that nothing can be lost. But can the same conclusion be drawn by the unbeliever? Is he equally sure of being free from danger? It is, at least, possible, that the Scriptures may be true; and if they should, not only is it certain, that there is a day appointed for a general investigation of human actions; but that this enquiry will turn on the manner in which all to whom the Christian system has been published, have received and practised it. If this tremendous day should at last arrive; if, at the trumpet's sound, the inhabitants of the dust should be summoned to the tribunal of their Saviour and their

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'* Bolingbroke allows, that "no religion ever appeared in the world, whose natural tendency was so much directed to promote the peace and happiness of mankind." Vol. iv. 281, 282. He observes in another place, that "the Gospel is, in all cases, one continued lesson of the strictest morality, justice, benevolence, and universal charity." Vol. iv. 188.'

Judge; how or where shall the unbeliever appear? On what hills will he call to hide, or what mountains to cover him from the presence of one whose doctrines and precepts he rejected and despised? To the Christian, on the contrary, this day insures the commencement of happiness, the final consummation of all his hopes; the glorious crown, to which he humbly looked forward, to reward his patient and persevering labours.

'In a word, the infidel offers us, by following his example, the chance, at least, of the most fatal evil, without the smallest expectation of superior good; the Christian frees us from the possibility of danger, and holds forth a clear and satisfactory prospect of the most exalted recompence. "Choose you, then, this day, whom you will serve."

In the progress of a discussion which embraces so many distinct objects, and involves so much controverted matter, it may be taken for granted that Mr. R. has made assertions which will be called in question, and has committed errors in some of his statements which cannot escape the Scripture critic: but, if the nature and object of his plan be considered, he must be said to have executed it well, and to be intitled to praise. He has compressed the substance of many voluminous works into a small space, and has made his book amusing and instructive to the common reader. His concluding arguments are indeed not new, but they are such as come home to our bosoms, and as even the most callous infidel must feel. On the principle of sound calculation, Religion is a wise pursuit; and if the evidences of the Gospel be not sufficient to remove every doubt from every mind, yet as a system of duty it is unobjectionable. The hope which it inspires is pure and animating, and the path which it prescribes is, at all events, perfectly safe.

Moy.

ART. IX. *Poems* by Thomas Brown, M.D. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

A READER of these volumes will soon perceive that Dr. Brown is not to be placed in the class of ordinary versifiers. A boldness and a vigor of conception, a wild luxuriancy of imagination, and frequent strokes of pathos, characterize his muse. He seems to be more attentive to force and energy of expression, than to the easy flow and harmony of numbers; and in the abruptness of his transitions, as well as in the condensation of his sentiments, he subjects himself to the charge of being often obscure. In him we discover the laudable wish to be indeed a poet; to be *creative*; to draw from the stores of his own mind, to despise the tameness of imitation, and

and to revolt at the idea of being tracked in the snow of his predecessors. We observe him to delight more in the awful, the sublime, and the terrific, than in the mild and in the tranquil; and his poetical delineations resemble the pictures of Salvator Rosa, rather than those of Claude Loraine. Occasionally, he endeavours to vary the solemnity of his muse by light and playful satire, and by epigrammatic point: but here he is not quite "at home." The longest piece of this kind, intitled '*Much ado about Nothing*,' is dull and heavy, considered as an attempt at humour; though the conclusion, in which the poet's good wishes are artfully conveyed under the affected semblance of anathemas, is certainly ingenious. We are not sorry, however, to change the subject for others in which Dr. Brown exhibits himself in his appropriate style of painting. When he undertakes the pathetic, he touches our hearts, and "harrows up our souls." His *Mary* is a new and successful effort, in a series of 15 Sonnets, 'to describe the feelings of a delicate mind, in its progress from misfortune and imprudence, through the different stages of vice.' The affecting but too common incidents, which are wrought by the poet into distinct though connected pictures, will be seen in the outline of the story.

'Mary, the only child of an old and widowed father, is seduced by false assurances of marriage, to quit her home with a lover of superior rank—is deserted.—Her father dies.—Scorned by the world, and indignant at its supposed cruelty, she shelters in the misery of prostitution her wants and her resentment, receives at length the vices of her class, and dies with all the agony of contrition.'

We shall quote the last two sonnets, describing her repentance and death; to which we shall subjoin the poem that follows, addressed to a lady, with Mary's heart-breaking tale:

'REPENTANCE.

'O! come not now, ye visions of the past,
That bless pale Virtue's death couch! come not now,
Relentless, on her agony!—And thou,—
O thou, who feebly that sick look hast cast
Of wild rejoicing, that no eye is there,
No hated relic of the world!—O! cease,
Forsaken sufferer! nor, with torturing peace,
Rest, in the sullen vengeance of despair!
The drops, which, in thy riot-hour, thine eye
Has turn'd from man's cold mockery, till a smile,
Of sterner scorn, has risen, nor ask'd thy guile—
O! give them to thy God!—Yes! lift on high
That glance! Yes! trembler, weep!—That anguish-glow
Is rapture, to the revels of thy woe.'

DEATH.

'Life's dreamy night is o'er. Thy feeble frame,
That struggled, but to fix the rankling dart,
Has laid its miseries down, nor more thy heart
Shall glow with love, nor burn with frenzying shame.
Haste to thy judge, lone wretch! Thy God, who knew
Each painful conflict, o'er thy guilt has cast
His brightening mercy.—Thro' that stormy past,
Dim, dim thy youth's mild radiance gleams to view.
O! I have mark'd thee rear thy lovely head,
Till he, to whom thou gav'st thy soft perfume,
Dash'd the pure dew-drops from thy opening bloom,
And tore thee drooping—And he lives!—*Nor red*
One vengeance falls!—He needs it not.—The breast,
That bore to wound thee, dares not to be blest.'

TO A LADY;

WITH THE PRECEDING TALE.

'Yes! I have felt thine eyebeam thrill,
When pleasure sparkled in thy gaze;
And I have seen thee, dearer still,
Look mildest friendship's soften'd rays.

'Yet, not in rapture's glowing hour,
Thine eye's soft spirit swims most dear:
That glance, tho' sweet I feel its power,
That glance were sweeter, thro' a tear.

'O! come then, come, and bend thee low,
Where none the dewy gem shall see;
And I will sing thee tales of woe,
And thou may'st weep, to Heaven and me!

'Come, hear, of Innocence deceived,
Of peace, which smiling Falsehood broke,
Of vows, which trusting Love believ'd;—
Meek Love, that trusted, ere he spoke!

'Then weep the victim, weep the guile,
That led her lingering to the tomb;
Till *more than health* refus'd to smile,
Till *more than misery* clos'd the gloom!

'Ah! Blush not!—Why that tear conceal?—
Nay, 'twas but virtue's erring ire:
She felt that wrath, which wretches feel;—
'Twas vice, but virtue gave the fire.

'And think, in Passion's iron grasp,
Ah! think on all, that breast would know;
What pangs, ere Woe Remorse would clasp,
What pangs Remorse would give to Woe!

'Yet,

'Yet, turn'st thou still?—Where Heaven forgave,
Still fearful, wouldst thou check thy sigh?
Come, let me lead thee to her grave!
'Twill speak, in softness, to thine eye.

'No blasted verdure wilt thou view,
No gloom, as angry Nature frown'd;
But Heaven's sweet tears the turf bedew,
And Heaven's sweet radiance glows around.

'And canst thou breathe the gale of balm,
When Evening smiles upon her sod;
And shalt thou scorn, in Nature's calm,
To share the mercy of thy God?—

'No! Let the breast, of virtue frail,
In chill unmelting caution sleep!—
Come thou, and listen to my tale,
And pure in pity, dare to weep!'

Dr. B.'s profuse application of compound epithets will strike the reader of these poems; and in some instances he takes the liberty of uniting words by the hyphen-yoke, which do not pair well together: such as *guilt-dark—ice-storm—ocean-rush—war-heart—tempest-arm—battle-sod—glance-dew—accusing-given—earth-bowed—glittering-vested*, &c.

Other connected Sonnets are to be found in these volumes, on the Subjugation of Switzerland by the French, on Negroe Slavery in America, and on Infancy. The majority of subjects are of the pathetic kind, but they are too numerous for specification. As a farther example of Dr. Brown's poetical talent, and of the turn of his genius, we transcribe the first piece in Vol. 2. intitled,

'THE MURDERER.

'Speed, speed thy flight!—His pangs are o'er;
I heard the faint death-stifled cry.
That arm shall rush in strength no more,
Nor smile thy wrongs that hated eye.
Saw'st thou the quiverings, as, in death,
He grasp'd thee to his struggling breath,
When pale its flash the sudden whirlwind threw?—
Speed, speed thy flight!
The dawning light
Gleams distant, where no watchful steps pursue.
Why shrink'st thou? Ne'er again thine ear
That voice of hateful joy shall hear.
He groans not now.—He call'd not, mid the storm.—
Thou start'st!—He treads not near.—Far shriek'd his weltering form.

'Safe,

'Safe, in the shades, that saw thy birth,
Suspicion spares thy mild renown.
Here all is peace.—Why fix'd on earth
The sullen darkness of thy frown?
O! lift to heaven that burning cheek!
These smiling haunts to memory speak,
Of early loves, and youthful joys endear'd.
How gay, that grove
Has seen thee rove!
There proud thy hands the fairy grotto rear'd:
Oft, on that lawn, the moonlight dance
Has laugh'd.—Why, why that fear-struck glance?
Ah! then thy childhood's friend—But hate is o'er:
Why fliest thou, wild of thought? He sleeps, and wakes no more.

'He wakes no more.—The watchful guile,
That, with chill sympathy of art,
Mixd, in thy joy, its trusted smile,
Then stole the treasure from thy heart—
The charm, that won her fickle vow,
That glance of triumph, beams not now.
Yet why, with haste, too sparing of thy foe,
No pause between,
Unheard, unseen,
From the dim archway, rush'd thy sudden blow?
Why knew he not the wrath, which weigh'd,
With double impulse, on thy blade?
Then, then the death 'twere sweet revenge to give.
To die!—O no! Thou feel'st, the torture were to live.

'Tis night.—Let Joy retire to rest!—
O! trust not *thou* the silent gloom!
Again those sounds may lull thy breast,
And Beauty wave her trancing bloom.
Still, still the festive hour prolong!
Ah! fliest thou?—From the splendid throng
Retir'd, what shapes thy frenzying gaze employ!
With solemn tread,
Around thy bed—
O hide thee, from that glance of scornful joy!
What flesh-bare arm, of growing size,
Slow, slow, and cold, so near thine eyes,
Leads the dim blade?—His blood encrusts it still.—
Hark to that groan!—'Twas his.—Yes! memory owns the thrill.

'Now, on her couch impatient cast,
Sad watching, let the traitress pine!
She dreams, of fondness sweetly past,
Sighs at each vow, but *not at thine*.
Ah! lingers still his slow return?—
Yes! let her suffer!—She could spurn

Thy

Thy sorrow. Now her triumph let her see—
The slow-borne bier,
The form, so dear—
Yes! let her meet her lord—and think of *thee!*
O no!—That glance, with swift delight,
Once flow'd upon thy melting sight:
Once even that smile, that faithless smile, could charm.—
O! let her mark the wound, *nor know the murdering arm!*

'Tho' Horror haunt the waking hour,
Why, why thy weary eyelids close?
To thee, sleep wafts no soothing power.
O! yield thee not, nor hope repose!
Save, save that dream!—Thro' burning air,
Thy shuddering form what demons bear?
Slow, o'er the torrent's gloom, they downward fly:
Its whirling flood,
All red with blood,
As swells each wave, shrill sounds of anguish die.
What form, in fiercer vengeance blest,
Cold clasps thee to his gory breast?
Start not!—He quits thee soon.—Each hope denied,
They loose thy struggling frame, and plunge thee mid the tide.

'Awake!—See! morning smiles.—'Tis past:
Swift, as the gloom, thy vision fled.—
And feel'st thou still the burning blast,
The surge, still eddying round thy head!
Arise!—O! turn those pangs above!
Bend thee to him, whose wrathless love
Thrills soft to peace the shudderings of despair!
Why start'st thou wild?
He heard.—He smil'd.—
The eye of mercy frown'd not on thy prayer.
O! rush not, sink not thus, with frame
All frantic-faint!—Arise!—That flame
Wild-flash'd!—That groan!—Those limbs that struggling twine!—
Ah! Death, that beams on woe, wafts deeper gloom to thine.'

We have alluded to Dr. Brown's obscure and incorrect expressions. Even in the dedication to his mother, his meaning is clouded. 'A *turf*'s trembling in the gale' is a new picture; as *unanguish'd*, in another poem, is a new word. 'And smile a love I loath' is not grammar; which we may say also of 'Nor *red* one vengeance falls,' and 'What though *red* a glimpse of anguish-dreaming.' We know not what he means by giving 'the seraph to his *number'd* bower,' Vol. ii. p. 114.: but we will not dwell on defects.

While Dr. B. indulges in the pleasures of the Muse, he combats, in 'The Bard,' the prejudice entertained against the study of

of poetry, on account of the indigence with which it has often been attended. The conclusion of this poem shall finish our extracts:

> If haply to thy voice, of purer strain
> Than earthly Passion loves, the sordid ear
> Be shut disdainful, if the envious breath
> Blast, ere they bloom, the honours of thy name,
> They shall not perish: other suns shall rise;
> And, from thy bending glory, full to heaven,
> Thro' each pale vapour melting in the blaze,
> The bright luxuriance blossom. Turn not then
> Dismay'd, O! turn not, with that hope, which shrinks
> Despairing when the feeble voice denies,
> With mimic pride, its homage of an hour:
> But, not forgetful of His trust, who gave
> The glowing burthen to thy soul, and strong,
> With that sure confidence, which, meekly still,
> Claims not in wrath the treasure soon its own,
> Wait thou a calmer judgment! Future years
> Thy fame will cherish. Even the humblest spot,
> That, bound in slight relation, bears imprest
> Thy hallowing image, oft will wake the tear
> Of doubtful joy, when wonder, love, regret,
> Throb in one mix'd emotion. Grateful Age
> Will praise the bard of Virtue: and how oft
> Will youthful Genius, in the ardent hour,
> Thrill at thy name! But, nobler than the wreath
> Of mortal honour waving o'er the brow,
> In silence of the world thou calm wilt feel,
> Around thy heart, a heaven-beam'd glory play,
> Softening, and blessing all. The generous wish
> Will live in memory; and, when Conscience speaks,
> Alike neglect and praise of mortal tongue
> Fall cold, and thrill not. In the death-dark hour,
> When, on his splendid couch, no comfort near,
> Wealth sighs amid his treasures, owns how frail
> His boasted joy, yet clings, with feeble grasp,
> Even to the dross he scorns: when Power reviews,
> Now lull'd no more by pleasure, lull'd no more
> By flattering pride, the record of his crimes,
> And, trembling o'er each character of blood,
> Starts from the dark unknown, thou, gently sooth'd
> By sweet remembrance of thy virtuous toils,
> Thy life of holiest innocence, wilt feel,
> As in the slumber of thy nightly couch,
> No chill forebodings, from the happy past
> Presage the gracious future, calmly sink,
> And, mid heaven's brightest spirits, meet thy God.[1]

From these specimens, the correctness of our opinion respecting Dr. B.'s poetical merit may be appreciated; and if the reader

reader be partial to compositions which tend to excite strong emotions, we recommend him to several pieces in these volumes.

Mo-y.

ART. X. *Practical Observations on the Treatment of Strictures in the Urethra, and in the OEsophagus.* By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S. Surgeon to St. George's Hospital. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 424. 7s. Boards. Nicol.

THE present volume contains the result of a more ample experience on the subject which it discusses, than the author had enjoyed at the time of his former publication *; by this augmented practice, he is still farther confirmed in the utility of armed bougies, when applied with judgment and discretion, in removing this serious complaint. He has had occasion also to remark a great variety of anomalous constitutional symptoms, which are derived from the disease of the urethra, and are only to be cured by attention to their original cause. That these are connected with the existence of strictures, he has been able to determine, he informs us, by three different modes:

'The first is, that patients are liable to them while labouring under that disease: the second, that they very often are brought on in the course of a few hours after an armed bougie has been applied to the stricture: and whenever they follow such an application, it has been found that the symptom then produced has, at a former period, been met with in the same patient. The third is, that after the removal of the stricture the symptoms disappear, although the patient had been liable to them for a number of years. Such evidence, when collected upon a large scale, by a person of extensive experience, can admit of little if any fallacy.

'The most frequent of these constitutional symptoms is a regular feverish paroxysm, resembling those of intermittent fever, only more violent. When the paroxysm is complete, and the sweating fit very profuse, there is no succeeding fit for several days; but when that is not the case, there is a second, and sometimes a third, before the attack goes off.

'In one instance, there was a succession of paroxysms till the patient was nearly exhausted; the last of these came on almost immediately after sucking a lemon, and it was several weeks before he recovered his strength.

'In another instance, the perspiration was so very profuse for fourteen days, that during the whole period the patient never passed a drop of urine: the first time the kidneys began again to secrete, the fluid was as thick as blood and was voided with great pain.

'The next symptom in frequency is feverish indisposition, coming on regularly every evening, attended with restlessness, and going off

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* See M. Rev. Vol. xx. N. S. p. 353.

towards

towards morning; this will continue for a week or longer, and then go off, returing at uncertain intervals.

'Other symptoms are; a state of general nervous irritation, attended with impatience, quickness of temper, anxiety and great despondency, in some instances bordering upon insanity; delirium lasting for two or three hours, and then going off; irritation in the stomach coming on at a particular hour in the twenty-four, and lasting two or three hours; a costive habit of body, with an uneasy state of the bowels; sciatica. Hysterics are sometimes an attendant on the disease, and have in such instances been brought on by the application of the caustic. Epilepsy in one instance occurred. Attacks of erysipelas on the head and face; inflammation of the tonsils and throat; and eruptions on the skin, with discolouration of the cuticle now and then take place.'—

'As some of the constitutional affections above mentioned arising from stricture very frequently occur, and have in a great many instances been treated as original independant diseases, both by physicians and surgeons, of eminence as well as of ability, it has afforded an opportunity of deciding a point which appears to be of no small importance in general practice; that when symptomatic, they do not yield to the modes of treatment by which they have been removed when arising from other causes. The intermittent fever attendant upon stricture is not prevented from returning by the use of bark or arsenic; and the only medicine I have found useful in completely carrying off the symptoms is a purgative draught. That which I have generally used is composed of infusion of senna, tincture of senna, and soluble tartar.'

The various effects, which strictures occasionally produce on different constitutions, are exemplified by a number of cases, which the author circumstantially details; and which, though they are in general too prolix, and do not afford instances of the variety of practice which he leads us to imagine he has frequently found it necessary to employ, will nevertheless furnish much useful information to the professional man.

Strictures, by long continuance, for the most part undergo considerable changes; being at first nothing more than a 'membranous partition;' but in time frequently becoming of the 'consistence of ligament,' when they are much more difficult of cure. That the parts recover themselves after the use of caustic, and acquire the natural smooth surface which they originally possessed, has been, we are informed, completely ascertained: but they still remain more exposed than previously to the formation of stricture, and to a recurrence of disease on any new irritation being excited, or any fresh inflammation produced. The gout has considerable influence over the urethra, and often produces a return of contraction, after the removal of strictures by caustic.

The

The urethra is liable to be irritated by a variety of causes, which produce a temporary contraction that has often been mistaken for stricture. Cold in some constitutions has had this effect; in others, different substances taken into the stomach, such as ginger, burgundy, or small-beer. The piles, gonorrhœa, and inflammation of the inner membrane of the bladder, have also given rise to the same occurrence.

In the chapter in which Mr. Home gives examples of stricture producing other diseases, he states, in addition to erysipelas and sciatica, an involuntary flow of urine, enlargement of the testicle, and a diseased state of the surface of the tongue, as having been occasionally so far connected with the complaint in the urethra, as to disappear on its removal.

The formation of false passages in the urethra, by the unskillfulness or inattention of the surgeon, or the rashness of the patient, has frequently come under the author's observation; and here he offers a very good reason why patients should never be trusted to make use of the caustic bougies.

'The great nicety required,' says he, 'is to apply the caustic with accuracy and steadiness to one particular spot, and to that only. Now there is a curious fact, which is only to be learnt by experience in this practice, that no one is capable of distinguishing accurately between the feel of resistance and local pain, and patients are constantly mistaking the uncommon sensibility of a particulart part of the urethra for a stricture, believing they meet with resistance, because going further gives pain. This is a practical remark which I have occasion to make almost daily; and I have great difficulty in convincing patients of its truth. I mention it here as the most unanswerable objection to a patient attempting to perform this operation upon himself, a subject I should not have thought it necessary to dwell upon, had I not been frequently applied to for such permission, and also known very many instances, in which it has been attempted without any benefit, and others, where the parts were brought into such a state, as not afterwards to admit of a cure.'

Some cases are given, in which it was necessary to have recourse to puncturing the bladder, in order to evacuate its contents; an operation which the author has always performed by the rectum. When it is practised in order to relieve a patient who labours under a spasmodic affection in the urethra only, he recommends the canula to be immediately withdrawn: but if the stricture be permanent, and refuse passage to the smallest bougie, he thinks that it should be suffered to remain for 48 hours.

Six cases of stricture in the œsophagus are also related; four of which were relieved, but the remainder terminated fatally; and a case is added, in which a stricture in the rectum was relieved by the use of the caustic.

Yell.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1805.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 11. *The Exercise of Great Guns, as practised by the Royal Artillery;* containing the Rudiments of that Duty: for the general Use of such Persons as in the present Emergency may be called to the Service. By one of the Trinity House Royal Volunteers. 4to. 1s. Egerton.

THE author of this manual laments that in our situation, and under our present circumstances, 'no *horn book* has yet been formed to give our Volunteers a general idea of the duty of serving Great Guns.' He has therefore prepared a few simple directions, exhibiting the words of command used in loading garrison guns, the disposition of the men in serving the gun, and the words and motions used in working, loading, firing, &c. illustrated by a plate. G.2.

Art. 12. *A Short Essay on the Construction and Advantages of Light Artillery for acting with Infantry*, and a Description of the Loaded Spear recommended for the Use of the Rear Ranks; with an Introductory Section on the Causes that have contributed to change the old established System of Military Tactics. Containing also some Experiments made with Double Ball Musket Cartridges, &c. &c. By Major John Aldington. 8vo. pp. 60. and a Plate. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

It will appear from the title-page, that this small tract contains remarks on a variety of subjects which are particularly interesting at the present moment; and it is not in our power to follow the author through them all; nor to convey, within a short compass, a general idea of his different suggestions. We think, however, that they deserve a recommendation to the notice of military men. The renewed adoption of the antient spear, as here proposed, to be used by the rear-rank-man when the ranks are three deep, would surely give us the service of a very powerful and formidable weapon, and one of which the management would be easily learnt. Major A. informs us that his ideas respecting Light Artillery were the result of observations made in actual service, and have been shewn to and approved by military men in high stations. G.2.

Art. 13. *Instructions for the Formation and Exercise of Volunteer Sharp Shooters.* By Captain Barber, commanding the Duke of Cumberland's Corps of Sharp Shooters. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

Capt. B. states that these instructions were originally composed only for the use of the corps which he commands, but that he was sollicited to print them by many volunteer officers engaged in similar service. They are confined to the operations of a single company, and are divided into two parts, treating: 1. Of the Rifle, and the practice of Firing: 2. Of the Exercise and manœuvring of the Company. The Bugle Horn calls are added, in score; and also ten signals for the Whistle;

Whistle; which, says Captain Barber, 'being very dissimilar, though confined to one note, have been found sufficiently distinct, and would often render the whistle a valuable substitute for the bugle horn, in actual service.' The whole forms a convenient manual. G. 2.

Art. 14. *Observations and Hints relative to the Volunteer Infantry.* By an Officer. 8vo. ~~1s. 6d.~~ Chapple. 1805. 2s.

These observations are rather general than practical, and seem principally intended to controvert Sir Robert Wilson's unfavourable sentiments respecting the Volunteer establishment. The author writes like a man of sense and a gentleman; the scope of his argument merits consideration; and such practical remarks as occur appear to us well founded. G. 2.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *Words of Eternal Life:* or the Catechism explained on a new and familiar Plan. With Notes. By B. N. Turner, M. A. Rector of Denton, &c. 8vo. 6d. or 5s. a Dozen. Spragg.

Mr. Turner's explanation is intended for young persons previously to confirmation, and the notes for those of riper years. It is divided into six sections:—The Covenant in Baptism—The Belief—The Commandments, Part I.—The Commandments, Part II.—The Lord's Prayer—The Sacraments. The explanation is a kind of paraphrase or exposition; and the notes, which are short, are intended to obviate difficulties and objections. Thus the promise of the godfathers and godmothers at Baptism, the Hell of the Creed, the *which* of the Lord's Prayer, &c. are noticed. On the last, it is observed 'Some people imagine that the words "*which* art" ought to be "*who* art;" and so indeed they ought, if the Almighty was any thing like a mere individual man: but when we consider Him as an immense, incomprehensible, undescribable being, surely the word *which* is much better and more appropriate.' We do not perceive how grandeur of thought can be promoted by a violation of grammar: but if *which* be more appropriate than *who*, why was it not preserved in all addresses to the Deity? The Common Prayer generally employs the latter; thus we have "O God, merciful Father *who*;"—"O thou *who* alone workest great marvels," &c. &c. If *which* must keep its place in the Lord's Prayer, it is better to say at once that it is a deviation from grammar, sanctioned by long use, than to offer such a reason for its preservation as is here given. *Which* occurs in other places in the N. T. where correctness requires *who*: but one error is not to be adduced in justification of another. It is well known that, when the present version of the Bible was executed, our language was not grammaticized.

To enforce the observance of the Sabbath on the lower classes, it is remarked by Mr. Turner that 'the poor, in particular, should respect and reverence the sabbath; for it is extremely favourable to them, as it forces their employers to allow them seven days maintenance for only six days work.' We trust that the poor will respect the sabbath on better motives, since, otherwise, we must despair of their reformation; for how easy is it to destroy the reasoning of this statement by inverting it, or by representing the poor as having only the wages of six days to maintain themselves through seven. The commandment, however, requires neither of these comments.

Art. 16. *A Letter to the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of London,* humbly suggesting a further Consideration of a Passage in the Gospel of St. Matthew. 8vo. pp. 78. 3s. Robson.

If we are to take Μικροτερος at his word, (such is the signature of this writer,) and judge him on his report of himself, he must be pronounced guilty of great presumption in publicly grappling with so learned a prelate on the stage of biblical criticism: but if we are to decide on the evidence of his letter, he must rather stand convicted of the affectation of humility. Having given no proofs 'of a feeble mind,' nor of being 'a mere tyro in biblical criticism,' but having demonstrated the reverse, we wish, for his own sake, that he had abstained from such self-abasement. The exercitation is ingenious, discovers considerable acquaintance with sacred literature, and is not beneath the attention of the Bishop of London. It contains an inquiry into the meaning of the first part of the 18th chapter of St. Matthew's Gospel, especially of the 10th verse: "*Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones; for I say unto you, that in Heaven their angels always behold the face of my Father which is in Heaven.*"

In his paraphrase of this passage, Bishop Porteus adopted the popular notion of guardian angels, which the text, as it stands in our version, appears fully to countenance: but the object of this letter is to shew that our Saviour in this place had no reference to the doctrine of attendant demons, which was prevalent at the period of his ministry, but intended merely to inculcate a doctrine encouraging to the pure in heart; viz. 'that the οι μικροι, truly pure and humble Christians are destined to be angels of the highest and most privileged order in the divine presence.' By *boldly venturing* to suggest that Matt. xix. 14. των τοιουτων εστιν η βασιλεια affords a similar expression with that in the passage under discussion, the letter writer thus reads it: '*For I say unto you,* of such *are those angels in heaven, who always behold the face of my Father.*' This gloss is supported with ability, and it obviates a difficulty on the subject of demonology: but good Christians, who have cherished the grand idea of having angels as "ministring spirits," may not, by the criticisms of Μικροτερος, be easily persuaded to give up this invisible part of their household. Mo.y.

Art. 17. *Honest Apprehensions:* or the unbiassed and sincere Confession of Faith of a plain, honest, Layman. 8vo. 2s. 6d. White. 1803.

We do not perceive the utility of publishing this long confession of faith, extending through 74 pages; because one lay-man's declaration, 'I do believe,' is no reason why another should believe with him. Be this as it may, such a naked confession of faith is no subject of criticism; and we refer this honest layman, who may require ghostly advice, to the vicar or curate of his parish. D?

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 18. *An improved Method of treating Strictures in the Urethra.* By Thomas Whately, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. pp. 230. 5s. boards. Johnson. 1804.

Mr. Whately is a friend to the use of caustic in the treatment of strictures in the urethra: but, instead of employing, with Mr. Home, the

the *argentum nitratum*, he has had recourse to the *kali purum*; which he considers as much better adapted for the purpose. This substance, he conceives, unlike the lunar caustic, never produces a slough; it only abrades the membrane of the stricture, and gives rise to the formation of a slimy matter, which adheres to the bougie. He thinks that the armed bougie should never be passed when there is much irritability in the urethra, and should not be introduced oftener than once in a week. He also gives particular directions for ascertaining the exact distance of the stricture, before the caustic is inserted.

The author deprecates the treatment of strictures in the urethra by lunar caustic, and relates several cases in which his own method was successful. The subject deserves consideration, but we apprehend that he does not render complete justice to the success with which Mr. Home's plan has been attended. See Art. X. of this month's Review.

Art. 19. *Practical Observations on Herniæ*; illustrated with Cases. By B. Wilmer, Surgeon in Coventry. 2d Edition, enlarged. 8vo. pp. 98. 3s. Longman and Co.

We formerly noticed with approbation the first edition of this work (See Rev. Vol. lxxix, p. 269): the present contains several cases and remarks which the author's practice has since afforded; and among the rest, two examples of the reduction of the strangulated part having been effected, by steady and continued pressure, after every other method had failed. This mode of attempting the reduction he considers as an important addition to the means in use; and he advises the pressure to be made by a metallic substance, of a cold temperature, and of the weight of two or three pounds, which should be suffered to remain on the part a few hours before the reduction is again attempted. During the application, the hips of the patient should be considerably raised.

The first case terminated favourably, the reduction having been readily effected, after the continuance of pressure for about four hours. In the second instance, the reduction was also effected, but the pain returned in a short time afterward, and the patient died on the following morning. Concerning this case, the author observes that

'Although it terminated fatally, the success, as far as it regards the return of the contents of the hernia, was complete, and the following inferences may be deduced from it:

'1. That the disease under which the patient laboured, was in the first instance enteritis, and that the part of the intestine in the hernial sac being enlarged by inflammation, became strangulated.

'2. That a considerable pressure may be made by a heavy metallic substance during more than twenty hours upon an inflamed intestine without occasioning gangrene.

'3. That the return of the parts was accomplished without producing peritoneal inflammation, either in the hernial sac, or adjoining parts, which probably would have been the case if the operation had been performed, and the patient had died.'

Considering that the mode recommended by the author requires several hours to give it a fair trial, we should have some fears that the delay would, in many instances, prove injurious.

POLITICAL.

Art. 20. *Papers relative to the Discussion with Spain in* 1803 *and* 1804. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. Additional Ditto. 8vo. 3s.; and Additional Ditto. 8vo. 1s.

The first of these pamphlets contains the papers laid before Parliament on the 24th of January last, and the *Declaration* of His Majesty's Ministers on the subject of the war with Spain: the second includes the papers presented to both Houses on the 2d and 4th of February; and the third contains those which were furnished on the 6th of this month.—We abstain from all comment on documents which have already undergone so much and such able discussion. G. 2.

Art. 21. *A Letter to the Freeholders of Middlesex;* containing an Examination of the Objections made to the Return at the Close of the late Middlesex Election, and Remarks on the political Character and Connections of Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. By an attentive Observer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

As the matter in dispute relative to the conduct of the Sheriffs, and the return at the late Middlesex Election, involves a question of the greatest constitutional importance, immediately connected with the exercise of the elective franchise, we could have wished to see it discussed with calmness, and kept distinct from party declamation and gross invective. Citizen Hardy, Colonel Despard, the Corresponding Society, and Jacobinism, can have nothing to do with the discussion, and can only be introduced for purposes foreign to the pure argument. Even the character of Sir Francis Burdett himself stands distinct from the true subject of examination. We venture to say, therefore, that a great part of this pamphlet is irrelevant, as an address to the freeholders of Middlesex on the late election for that county.—The Attentive Observer seems however to be well acquainted with the proceedings at Brentford; he exposes, with proper indignation, the vile attempts which were made to introduce fictitious votes on the poll; and he strenuously vindicates the conduct of the Sheriffs, with regard to the reserved votes at the close of the poll. He argues with ingenuity, but in our opinion, he rather evades than meets the difficulty of the case, as it bears on the right of the elector to exercise his franchise, and on the power of the Sheriff to deprive him of it, by refusing to take his vote. As the subject is engaging the attention of Parliament, we shall wait, without endeavouring to bias the public mind, for its important decision. It is allowed, by the present writer, that the Inspectors objected to Sir Francis's votes *collectively*, which appears to us to be a very strange mode of proceeding. Supposing that this conduct should be declared unfair, and the election made void, he, with great *sans froid*, remarks that, 'at the worst, Sir Francis Burdett will have no reason to complain of any greater injury, than he himself inflicted on Mr. Mainwaring senior.' Would the Attentive Observer insinuate, that the management at the late Brentford election was intended as a Rowland for the Baronet's Oliver? Moy.

Art. 22. *The True Interest of the United Kingdom proved in two beneficial Plans of Finance:* to take off all the Taxes, prior to 1803; and provide Thirty Millions for the present Emergency, without

without the Income and Property Taxes, &c. &c. &c. By Joseph Coad. 4to. 6d. Rickman.

How easy does it appear to some speculators to remove all financial difficulties! This projector supposes that 50,000,000 annually could be raised as a tax on land; and that 30,000,000 annually could be levied as a poll tax, at 3l. per head on 10,000,000 persons: but a scheme so wild and undigested requires little animadversion. It is sufficient to adduce, in proof of Mr. Coad's ignorance, that he states the farmer's expence on an acre of land at only 1l. per annum. From a person so incompetent to the task of giving political advice, the recommendation of a maximum in the price of provisions, to be fixed by the legislature, will be little regarded. Mo.y.

Art. 23. *Apperçu de la Nation Française, comme Puissance Militaire, depuis le Commencement de la Revolution: Conduite des François envers l'Europe en général. Avis à la Grande Bretagne*, &c. *i. e.* A View of the French Nation as a Military Power, since the Commencement of the Revolution; and the Conduct of the French towards Europe in general. 8vo. pp. 104. 2s. sewed. Egerton. 1804.

This pamphlet consists of certain parts of a work intitled *Caractère Militaire des Armées Européennes*, already noticed by us; and to which we thought it our duty to invite public attention *: but it is not a little singular that no hint is here given of its relation to that production. The additions do not seem to be material. It may be, that the author thought that no harm could arise out of the frequent perusal of works of this kind, which warn us of the danger to which we are exposed from our enterprizing and vigilant enemy, and which our miserable party-contests at home have a tendency to make us forget. When our foe dealt out his threats, the nation shewed a spirit of unanimity that was glorious: but the leaders of parties could not sacrifice at the altar of the country, their jealousies, and their lust of power. One person alone is, however, to be regarded as having, by extravagant self-estimation, and an inordinate love of office, prevented the union of public men; an union which would have commanded the confidence and co-operation of our allies, as well as the respect of our enemy, and which would have wound up to the highest pitch the national spirit at home. Great is the responsibility which this individual has incurred! Jo.

Art. 24. *Proposals for paying off the whole of the present National Debt*, and for reducing Taxes immediately. By Henry Mertins Bird, Esq. 3d edition. 8vo. 3s. Rivingtons.

The first edition of this pamphlet was published in 1799, at which time we sketched an outline of the plan which it contained, and offered our opinion respecting it. See M. R. Vol. xxviii, N. S. p. 345. In this third edition, Mr. Bird has made no alteration in his calculations; but he strongly urges the execution of his scheme. 'This,' he says, 'is the moment to astonish the world, and appal our enemies by the magnitude of our means, and to convince them that it is as much

* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 540.

out of their power to exhaust our resources, as it is to terrify us into submission by *the gasconade of invasion, which they now appear to shrink from themselves.*' It is now, he thinks, the chosen opportunity to convince France that our finances, like our isle, are invulnerable. Not having the former edition in our possession, we cannot ascertain the precise additions now made to this pamphlet; though we suppose, from its enlarged size, that they are considerable. Mo-y.

POETRY, and the DRAMA.

Art. 25. *The Passions.* An Ode for Music. By the late Mr. William Collins, with considerable Additions; and the second edition of an Elegy on the Death of William Cowper, Esq. By W. Churchey. 8vo. 6d. Crosby and Co.

Mr. Churchey is aware that his attempt to make additions to Collins's beautiful Ode on the Passions will be considered as not less presumptuous than that of a modern sculptor, who should undertake the restoration of the limbs of a mutilated Grecian statue. His motive to this daring is the lamentation of Langhorne, that *Love* is omitted in this brilliant composition, where it should have been introduced as a principal personage; and that the passion of *Pity* is only just '*touched* on.' With what effect these omissions are supplied, let the reader judge by the descriptions of *Love* and *Pity*:

'Then *Love*, sweet sighing, sat with bending Eyes,
Her Swain's lov'd Picture on her Bosom bound!
She look'd like some soft Angel of the Skies,
While all the Guests, entranced! flock'd around,
Fear, for *her* sake, snatch'd up the rusty Steel,
And *Anger* drop'd the uplifted sword,
Revenge and *Malice* lost their maddening zeal,
And *Envy* now for once ador'd!
Courteous she curtsied as she pass'd along,
And seem'd to breathe Arabian Air!
A sky blue zone around her waist was hung,
A Robe of *white* adorn'd the Fair!'——
'But sweeter still, if *Sweeter* can be found,
Celestial *Pity*, with a Dove like Eye,
Cast a soul melting Look around,
While from her Bosom heav'd a trembling Sigh!
When her *full* Memory, from historic Page,
Recorded Tales of agonizing woe,
She felt the Patriot's *Flame*, the Prisoner's *Cage*,
The *Curse* of treacherous Friend and furious Foe.
So strongly on her Brain impress'd,
The various *Maladies* of *Man*,
That *Distant* Ills disturb'd her fainting Breast,
As if *before* her Face they all began.'

The delineation of these passions is poetically correct: but in an ode for music, the measure should have been more varied.

In the Elegy on Mr. Cowper, the writer is not very happy.

'The savage manners of the Gods and *all*'

is a line fit only for a ballad.

After having celebrated the merit of the deceased bard, this elegiac tribute thus concludes;

' Peace to thy shade—O where—among the choir
Of *perfect spirits* do thy Virtues shine?
O drop thy *Mantle* and thy matchless *Lyre*,
And soon thy various Raptures shall be mine.'

It does not follow that, if Cowper were to drop his mantle, Mr. Churchey must necessarily find it. He may obtain some admirers: but let him not hence suppose that the genius of Cowper is bequeathed to him.

Art. 26. *The Battle of Largs:* a Gothic Poem. With several miscellaneous Pieces. 12mo. pp. 80. 3s. Boards. Highley. 1804.

The manufacturer of this little volume has taken for his motto, "And some believed him mad:" but we are very far from doing him this injustice,—at least we are ready to declare that he betrays no symptoms of that "fine phrenzy," which agitates the muse-struck bard. His performance ' is really submitted to the public with very humble views and expectations;' and we have really perused it with sentiments of the most profound humility, and with very sober expectations. ' The composition of the principal poem formed a part of the author's amusement during the leisure intervals of a laborious employment:' but will the reading of it also form a part of the amusement of the public, or even of those good-natured creatures, yclept *Reviewers?*—' He frankly confesses, that his object is chiefly to ascertain the value of his talent, such as it is, and to determine the degree of importance which he ought to attach to the faculties of taste and imagination in the future cultivation of his mind.' We frankly confess that his talent, such as it is, had just as well have remained hidden in his napkin; and we seriously exhort him to bear his faculties of taste and imagination with all becoming meekness, and never again to publish a Gothic poem without notes, merely to try ' the merits of his performance by itself;' for this is to submit his effusions to a cruel test.—The author may likewise rest assured that no sensible critic will mistake ' the Battle of Largs' for an heroic ballad, much less for an epic poem; and that, for our parts, we prefer the ' chasm in the scale of poetical performances' to a supplement like the present.

Let our readers judge.

' King Hako, wak'd, like one releas'd,
For Erie had his fancy seiz'd;
And with a hideous pantomime
A lurid white perplexed him.
He thus with gasping haste addrest
His consort, rudely shook from rest:
" Oh, I have had a dream so wild—
Guilt on no villain ere recoil'd
In such a haggard guise, as my
Unmarshall'd thoughts last night did try
To hurl my reason down. Methought
A silent-footed phantom sought

My couch. Her locks sulphureous glow,
Her furnace eyes, that burn'd below
A dismal forehead, glaring wide
(Like caves by night in Hecla's side);
And what her fangs for staff did grasp,—
'Twas fired ir'n." &c. &c.

In the heat of the battle, (which, by the way, is oddly enough postponed to the fifth and last canto,) we are not to wonder if the lines should be rather bustling than regular or musical:

' But mark aloft the scales of Fate,
Hanging on Jah's finger, vibrate,
Loaded with two human lots,
The left the Danes, the right the Scots;
King Hako's wanting lightly flies,
While firm at rest the Scottish lies.'

The concluding verses are awfully terrific:

' For all his proud audacious schemes,
Like the alchymist's golden dreams,
Have burst away with dire explosion,
Tumultuous ruin and confusion.'

The minor pieces are less exceptionable, though not characterized by the true vein of poetry. **Muir.**

Art. 27. *Armine and Elvira.* A Legendary Tale. The ninth Edition. With other Poems. By Edmund Cartwright, M. A. Inscribed to her Grace the Duchess of Bedford. Crown 8vo. pp. 132. 4s. Boards. Murray.

From the beautiful poem which stands at the head of this little collection, we made long extracts when we noticed it on its first appearance in the year 1771, (see M. R. Vol. xlv. p. 103.) and we have nothing to add to the praise which we then bestowed. As to the small pieces which are subjoined to this ninth edition of Armine and Elvira, we must remark that they are proofs of Mr. Cartwright's feeling and elegant mind. They appear to have flowed with ease from his pen, and the sonnets to individuals contain merited compliments elegantly conveyed; though we do not admire the metaphor in the eighth line of that which is addressed to Mr. Warton:

' And pick with patient care *the spars of thought*,'

for those who seek after jewels, or the precious metals, do not collect what are called *spars*. The *gems of thought* would have been a preferable expression.—We cannot enumerate the several elegies, odes, and sonnets, which compose the additions in this volume: but we shall copy two of the shortest sonnets:

' SONNET.—Written in the Year 1793.

' With sails expanding to the gales of Hope,
My vent'rous bark pursued her leading star;
Her's was a voyage of no common scope,
A voyage of discovery, distant far!
To bright Invention's intellectual clime
In search of USEFUL ARTS, 'twas mine to roam.

I reach'd

I reach'd the objects of my views sublime,
And, richly freighted bore the cargo home.
My friends, expectant, fill the crowded strand;
But, ere I gain the shore, what storms arise!
My vessel founders, e'en in sight of land,
And now a wreck upon the beach she lies!
Firm, tho' submissive, the sad wreck I see,
"Nor think the doom of man must be revers'd for me!"—

'*Written in the same year*

'When Fortune smil'd, my friends how kind and true!
Those friends, when Fortune frown'd, alas how few!
Hurt tho' I am, yet why should I repine,
While Susan's unabating love is mine?
Of this possest I wealth nor friendship need;
Of this depriv'd, I should be poor indeed!'

We quote also an

'Inscription for a Bust of Francis late Duke of Bedford.

'By days and years alone if life we scan,
Bedford, how short was thy contracted span!
And yet, if measur'd by thy virtuous deeds,
Thy span, tho' short, a Patriarch's age exceeds!
'That life was thine which dignifies high birth:
Its brilliant course proclaim'd thy matchless worth;
Its crowded space thy energy of mind;
Its toils and cares thy love of human kind.
With kindred chiefs enroll'd, thy patriot name
Shall stand recorded in the lists of fame;
While future Russels, in the generous strife
Of virtuous ardour, emulate thy life!'

Art. 28. *The Sailor's Daughter:* a Comedy, in five Acts, now performing at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lackington and Co.

Experienced play-wrights adapt the sentimental colouring of their dramas to the circumstances of the times, and draw their characters to suit the talents of the actors who are to personate them before the public. Mr. Cumberland has, on the present occasion, shewn his address in both these respects. Our navy is complimented by exhibiting a heart beating with the most generous and refined sentiments 'under an anchor button;' and some of the parts are evidently written for the persons who were intended to perform them. The comedy can scarcely be said to have any plot. In the first act, the catastrophe is clearly developed; and the course (as the tars would say) is pursued with very little traverse sailing. Captain *Sentamour*, the hero of the piece, is a very noble character; and *Hartshorn*, the apothecary, displays that blunt comicality to which Mr. Bannister is so well qualified for giving the fullest effect. *Varnish* is a common character, introduced only as a foil to Sentamour, and who aspires to the possession of the heroine, *Julia Clareville*, only to expose himself, and to exalt the merit of his rival. The courtship between *Mandeville* and *Louisa Davenant*, (the part performed by Mrs. Jordan,) if not copied from

nature, is of that teazing and provoking kind which is often to be found on the boards, and is better adapted to a comedy than dull love-making.—The dialogue is easy, and occasionally enlivened by sprightly corruscations; and, with the help of good acting, the finale might be reached under such impressions, that the audience would not object to *Hartshorn* giving out, in the true style of the shop,—*The same to be repeated.* Mo.y.

Art. 29. *The Paragraph:* a Musical Entertainment, in two Acts; as it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Prince Hoare. 8vo. 1s. 6d. R. Philipps. 1804.

Some humour will be found in these scenes; the object of which is to expose such city-sparks as are ashamed of those characteristics by which alone they can become respectable, and set up for fine gentlemen, a character to which they have not a shadow of pretension. The circumstance on which the laughable catastrophe of the piece turns (viz. a paragraph in a newspaper) was suggested to the author, as he informs us, by the effects which he himself experienced from a misrepresentation of his situation in one of the public prints. Young *Toppit*, the city fashionable spendthrift, (who in some respects resembles Young *Philpot*, in one of Mr. Murphy's farces,) is deceived by a paragraph, inserted by his sister for another purpose, in the public papers, falsely announcing that his uncle was dead, and had left to him the whole of his fortune. The incidents which this paragraph occasions are of the farcical kind; and Young *Toppit* (who had invited his genteel friends to accompany him to his uncle's villa, to be present at the funeral,) is completely mortified and brought to his senses by having more than ocular demonstration that his uncle was alive. The duet between Old *Toppit*, sick with taking physic, and *Eliza*, his niece, sick with love, must have had a laughable effect. *Field-Air*, the apothecary, is as honest a character as *Hartshorn*, in Mr. Cumberland's comedy; he cures Old *Toppit* of his rage for *doctor's stuff*; and puts health into his old veins by the simple process of air and exercise. Let the valetudinarian take this hint. Do

Art. 30. *Une Folie.* A Comic Opera, in two Acts. Being a Translation from the original of Love Laughs at Locksmiths. A Piece performed at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket, with universal Applause. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lackington and Co.

This title, which is not by itself sufficiently explanatory of the fact, is elucidated by an 'Address to the Public,' which informs us that the opera performed at the Haymarket, under the title of "Love laughs at Locksmiths," was the translation of a favourite French piece: but that it was preceded, in point of time, by the translation now before us, which the author has given to the public, on finding that "Love laughs at Locksmiths" has not been printed. The plot is strewed with improbabilities: but, as stage-effect seems to be consulted, it may have been more amusing in the representation than it can be in the closet. Though Love performs wonders, it cannot accomplish impossibilities. The French have properly styled this tissue of incoherent incidents, *Une Folie.* Do

MISCEL-

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *The Censor.* 12mo. 3s. Boards. Prince, Old North-Street, Red Lion Square.

The proposed intention of this publication is to satirize with good humour the prevalent follies of the age, and to suggest useful hints for the amelioration of the evils of life. Some good remarks will be found in several of these papers: but we observe of them in general, that the language is not sufficiently polished, nor the style and composition sufficiently correct, to insure their currency and success. Man.

Art. 32. *Gradus ad Cantabrigiam:* or a Dictionary of Terms academical and colloquial, or cant, which are used at the University of Cambridge. With a Variety of curious and entertaining Illustrations. 12mo. pp. 139. 3s sewed. Richardsons.

The common saying, "dull as a dictionary," will not apply to this work, which is explanatory of the University *slang*; for know, gentle reader, that the children of *alma mater* have their *slang*, as well as the heroes and heroines of St. Giles's; and many, besides *freshmen*, especially if they love a pun, will be amused by this comical manual, in which the cant terms employed at Cambridge are humorously announced. We see no harm in *sporting* a little ridicule on the peculiar language used at college: but we think that all personal reflections and allusions should have been avoided. To *bitch—bore—cat—cram—cut—pluck—quiz—raff—row—size*, &c. are words into the meaning of which the sons of *science* must be initiated; and with which, when they become *knowing ones*, they will profusely lard their discourse, to prove that they are not such *raffs* as not to be *up* to a *quiz*, and able to *kick up* a *row*. The vulgar multitude will enjoy some of Mr. Gradus's illustrations; and grave doctors, we think, will occasionally vouchsafe him a smile. We subjoin two or three explanations:

'To CUT; to look an old friend in the face, and affect not to know him; which is the CUT-DIRECT!

'To look any where but AT him—which is the CUT-MODEST, or, CUT-INDIRECT!

'To 'forget names with a good grace,'—as, instead of Tom, Dick, or Harry, to address an old friend, "Sir," or, "Mister,—*What's your Name?*" This is the CUT-COURTEOUS. Lastly,

'To *dart* up an alley, *dash* across a street, *whip* into a shop, or do any thing to avoid the *trouble* and mortification of nodding the head, to some one whom, perhaps, you have as *much* reason to dislike, as the man in the Epigram—

'Non amo te—*nec possum dicere quare*—This is the CUT-CIRCUMBENDIBUS!'

'HACKS. HACK PREACHERS; 'the common Exhibitioners at at St. Mary's, employed in the service of defaulters, and absentees. A piteous, unedifying tribe.' (*Gilb. Wakefield. See Memoirs of his Life*, 1792.) It must be confessed, however, that these HACKS are good fast *trotters*—as they commonly go over the course in twenty minutes, and sometimes less. The following memorial may serve to shew, how much the *patience* of an auditory has declined from what it was in former times.

'J. Alcock,

'J. Alcock, divina gratia, Episcopus Elliensis, prima die dominica MCCCCLXXXIII, bonum & blandum sermonem prædicavit, in ecclesia B. Mariæ, Cantabrig. qui incepit in hora *prima* post meridiem, & duravit in horam *tertiam & ultra.*

'*Dr. Barrow* was the last of the family of the *Spintexts.*'

'TO SPORT. A word *sacred* to men of fashion. Whatever they do, is nothing but sporting. 'One man *sports* a parodoxical walking-stick,' (*Grose's Olio.*)—Another *sports* his hat at noon-day, *sports* his dog, and his gun—*sports* his shooting-jacket.—"With regard to the word SPORT, they (the Cantabrigians) *sported* knowing, and they *sported* ignorant—they *sported* an *Egrotat*, and they *sported* a new Coat—they *sported* an *Exeat*, they *sported* a *Dormiat*, &c." (*Gent. Mag. Dec.* 1794.)

'TO SPORT A DOOR; to break it open. "To break the windows of a College, to disturb a peaceable Student by what is called SPORTING his door at midnight, &c. these are the methods which young men of spirit have often adopted to display their fire." (*Dr. Knox.*)—The practice is very ancient.

Non est flagitium—adolescentulum
- - - - *fores*
Effringere. *Ter. Adelph. A.* 1. *Sc.* 2.'

These peculiarities of phrase may be regarded as instances of the playfulness of scholars,—as incipient attempts at wit, as Johnson would express it,—and as the nonsensical froth on the surface of learning. Mo.y.

Art. 33. *The Encyclopedia of Wit.* 12mo. pp. 520. 6s. Boards. R. Philipps. 1804.

Art. 34. *A World of Wit*, containing characteristic Anecdotes and Bons-mots of eminent living Persons. By the Hon. Mr. S——r. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Hurst.

Of every publication of this nature, which we have seen, nearly the same character may be given; viz. that its contents are partly good, partly mediocre, and partly bad: the only difference consisting in the comparative proportion of these qualities. The present volumes, particularly the first, do not offer so many *stale* jests as most of their predecessors, but some of the anecdotes, which are ascribed to living characters, really belong to *ci-devants*. The wit of '*the World*,' too, is often confined to a pun, and often seasoned only by obscenity. Out of the dross and the dirt, however, some witty and some laughable stories may be picked. We copy one or two:

'J. BANNISTER.

'The late John Palmer, whose father was a bill-sticker, and who had occasionally practised in the same humble though hereditary occupation himself, being one evening strutting in the green room in a pair of glittering buckles, a gentleman who was present remarked, that they really resembled diamonds. "Sir," said the actor with some warmth, "I would have you to know, I never wear any thing except *diamonds.*"—"I ask your pardon," replied the gentleman, "I remember the time when you wore nothing but *paste.*" This produced a loud laugh, which was heightened by Jack Bannister's jogging him

on

on the elbow, and dryly saying, "D—n me, Jack, why don't you *stick him against the wall?*"

'PETER PINDAR.

'It being remarked of a picture of *the Lord Mayor and Court of Aldermen*, in the Shakespeare Gallery, that the varnish was chilled, and the figures rather sunk, the proprietors directed one of their assistants to give it a fresh coat of varnish. "Must I use copal or mastic;" said the young man. "Neither one nor the other," said the facetious Peter Pindar; "if you wish to *bring the figures out*, varnish it with *turtle soup*."

'LORD THURLOW.

'Mr. Pitt, when chancellor of the exchequer, was sufficiently notorious for the positiveness with which he delivered and supported his opinions. Lord Thurlow once rebuked him in his own way. Mr. Pitt was declaiming, at a cabinet dinner, on the energy and beauty of the Latin language; and, amongst other things, mentioned as a peculiar elegance in it, that two negatives made a thing more positive than one affirmative possibly could.—"Then," said Thurlow, "your father and mother must have been two *negatives*, to have made such a damned *positive* fellow as you are."

Among other illegal transfers of mental property in these collections, are Dr. Johnson's well-known repartee on difficult music, ascribed to Mr. Monk Lewis; the old compliment of the dust-man, applied to the Duchess of Devonshire; the sailor's idea of a nest of nightingales being in a female singer's belly, applied to Mrs. Billington; &c. &c.

The compiler of the latter of these publications ascribes the former to the Rev. Philip Smyth. Its contents are very ample, the volume being bulky, and the type small; and the profession in the preface, of avoiding 'whatever might be offensive to decency and morals,' is generally fulfilled. The old anecdote of Lord Townshend, p. 432, wants the point; "Oh, then," replied his Lordship, "there is no hope," and immediately departed. If Mr. S. be disposed to insert jokes on *Reviewers, our experience* could furnish him with better than that which he has here printed; and which he has spoiled by attributing it to our late venerable friend Dean Tucker:—it *might tell* from the mouth of some poor *d—d author*. G. 2.

Art. 35. *An Admonition to Parents and Children:* chiefly intended for the lower Classes of Society, by James Cowe, M.A., Vicar of Sunbury, Middlesex. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1803.

This author is already known to the world; his Sermons on Christianity, and his Philanthropic Tracts, have recommended him to regard. Immediately connected with the latter, is the present performance; which is an address to parents and children, delivered at the close of a charity-sermon, and which he had been repeatedly requested to make public. It contains very seasonable and sensible advice to those for whom it is immediately intended, and we hope that it may be productive of beneficial effects to themselves and to society in general. Hi.

Art.

Art. 36. *The General Character of the Dog:* illustrated by a variety of original and interesting Anecdotes of that beautiful and useful Animal, in Prose and Verse. By Joseph Taylor. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

An entertaining and benevolent compilement; designed to prevent the thoughtless and inhuman treatment to which this faithful animal is too often subjected. Some of the recorded instances of the dog's sagacity will almost startle belief: but we have *known* many such astonishing instances of his powers, that we cannot refuse our assent to them. G.2.

Art. 37. *A Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Lord Hobart,* His Majesty's late Principal Secretary of State for the Colonial Department. By Colonel Thomas Picton, late Governor and Captain-General of the Island of Trinidad, and Brigadier-General commanding His Majesty's Troops in that Island. 8vo. 2s. Lloyd.

Art. 38. *A Refutation of the Pamphlet which Colonel Picton lately addressed to Lord Hobart.* By Col. Fullarton, F.R.S. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

Colonel Fullarton, Colonel Picton, and Commodore Hood, were sent by Government as Commissioners for the affairs of Trinidad: but a difference soon arose among them, which ultimately dissolved the commission; and the circumstances of the case are now under the examination of the Privy Council. In the mean time, with some impropriety, as we think, two of these three gentlemen appear before the public with pamphlets which display unbecoming asperity and personality, but which afford no clear insight into the origin and grounds of the dispute. For our part, it certainly is neither our duty to state an opinion on the merits of the case, nor do we feel competent to form one from these very unpleasant recriminations. D.o

Art. 39. *Concise Statement of Facts, relative to the Treatment experienced by Sir Home Popham,* since his Return from the Red Sea: to which is added the Correspondence, naval, military, and commercial, *to* his Excellency the Marquis Wellesley, &c. *from* Sir Home Popham, during his Command in the Red Sea, and his subsequent Embassy to the States of Arabia. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Stockdale. 1805.

Art. 40. *Observations on a Pamphlet which has been privately circulated,* said to be *a Concise Statement of Facts,* and the *Treatment experienced by Sir Home Popham,* &c.: to which is added, a Copy of the Report made by the Navy Board to the Admiralty, on investigating the Account of Expenditure for the Romney and the Sensible at Calcutta, in 1801, while under the Orders of Sir Home Popham. 8vo. 2s. Ginger.

Art. 41. *A few brief Remarks on a Pamphlet published by some Individuals,* supposed to be connected with the late Board of Admiralty, intitled *Observations on the Concise Statement of Facts,* &c., in which the Calumnies of those Writers are examined and exposed. Together with Strictures on the Reports of the Navy and Victualling

ling Boards, &c. &c. By Æschines. 8vo. 2s. Swan, 76, Fleet Street.

In this dispute, as in that which is the subject of the preceding article, we profess ourselves neither able nor willing to become parties, but equally sorry for the style in which it is brought before the public. The pamphlet of Sir H. P. is not objectionable on the score of acrimony and personality, but the *Observations* are very open to this censure; and Æschines, who is certainly a writer of talents, is by no means deficient in severity. This certainly is not the mode in which an affair of this nature ought to be argued; nor should it be intermixed with party politics.—From the late conversations in the House of Commons, we suppose that the question will be farther agitated, and we hope more thoroughly elucidated.

G. 2.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 42. *On the universal Prevalence of Christianity:* preached at Nottingham, April 23, 1804, at the Archdeacon's Visitation: to which is added an Appendix relating to the Restoration of the Jews. By Edward Pearson, B.D., Rector of Rempstone. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Christianity is a religion which, on account of its superlative excellence, ought to prevail throughout the world; and prophecies occur in scripture, by which the pleasing expectation of such an event is cherished. Divines, however, are not agreed on the precise meaning of these texts. Will the Gospel so far triumph as to destroy the selfishness, the pride, and the passions of men; and, by causing virtue and benevolence to be universally diffused, bend the useless lance into the scythe, and link the world in the golden chain of peace? Propheay, in pointing to this event, employs metaphorical language borrowed from pastoral poetry;—language which even Virgil has copied. With great judgment, Mr. Pearson disclaims all extravagant interpretation of these passages; expecting only such blessings as would be the natural result of Christian principles, generally and uniformly operating on the conduct of men. He also rejects the romantic notion of the restoration of the Jews to their own land; judiciously observing that, as the Mosaic dispensation is superseded, there is no reason for their being kept a distinct people; and that the N. T., while it mentions the conversion of the Jews, never adverts to the circumstance of their being called from their dispersion to re-occupy Palestine.

Moy.

Art. 43. *The Antiquity and Advantages of Church-Music considered:* preached in the Cathedral Church of Worcester, Sept. 27, 1803, at the annual Meeting of the three Choirs of Worcester, Gloucester, and Hereford, for the Relief of the Widows and Orphans of the poor Clergy of the three Dioceses. By the Rev H.A. Stillingfleet, Rector of How-Caple, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Music is one of the most antient of the arts. The harp and the organ are as old as Jubal. The present preacher, having reminded us of the inventor of these ante-diluvian instruments, and observed that the use of instrumental as well as of vocal music in divine worship

ship is sanctioned by the example of remote antiquity, and by the personal attendance of our Saviour and his apostles on the temple service at Jerusalem, proceeds to argue in behalf of its introduction into the Christian church; where, he remarks, 'the harp of the son of Jesse may still avail to "dispossess the evil spirit." If sacred melody can "drive away the foul fiend," this is a sufficient reason for its adoption in all churches and chapels, as well as in cathedrals; and we would recommend piety to move to the sound of the harp and the organ. Mr. S., however, advises the concord of sweet sounds as friendly to charity as well as to piety; and after this who can say a word against Church Music?

Art. 44. *The Obligation and Mode of keeping a Public Fast:* preached at the Parish Church of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire, May 25, 1804. By Edward Pearson, B. D., Rector. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard.

The hints of this sensible preacher have no reference to political controversy, but to that practical morality which concerns all Christians. A fast-day having been appointed in consequence of our being "exposed to the dangers and calamities of war, and threatened with invasion by a fierce and haughty foe" (the passage does not proceed, "who would swallow us up *quick*, so wrathfully is he displeased *at* us," but it is added) 'who would gladly destroy us as a nation, and blot out our name from under heaven;' Mr. Pearson exhorts his parishioners to real penitence, and calls on them 'on this day, to form resolutions, which may have an happy influence on all their *future* ones.' The rules here given are intended to apply to the solemn fast of Good Friday, as well as to fasts appointed in seasons of public danger or calamity. Mr. P. recommends self-examination to accompany abstinence; for, he remarks, it is not the *pain* of fasting, but the good *effects* of it, which must recommend us to God.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our acknowlegements are due to our friendly Correspondent for the copy of Sir W. Jones's epitaph: but we are obliged to postpone, till the next month, the farther notice of his letter.

The '*Anglo-Farmer*', near Dolgelly, in course does not expect us to enter into any public discussion of the subject on which he writes.

An anonymous note, respecting the *author* of a recent 'licentious' publication, can have no weight with us.

*** In the Appendix to Vol. 45. of the M.R. which was published with the last Number. P. 487. l. 6. for 'remarked,' read *evidence*, and l. 7. for 'discovered,' read *remarked*.

☞ In the Rev. for January, p. 103. l. 13. fr. bot. dele 'to' after '*attempting*.' P. 107. l. 5. for '*Publicaia*', read *Publicata*.